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# Acquiring Vocabulary in a Foreign Language: Some Effects of the Nature of Instruction on the Knowledge and Use of Words.

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**Acquiring vocabulary in a foreign language: Some effects of the  
nature of instruction on the knowledge and use of words**

**Stowell-Ruzicka, Louise, Ph.D.**

**The Louisiana State University and Agricultural and Mechanical Col., 1991**

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Ann Arbor, MI 48106**



**ACQUIRING VOCABULARY IN A FOREIGN LANGUAGE :  
SOME EFFECTS OF THE NATURE OF INSTRUCTION ON THE  
KNOWLEDGE AND USE OF WORDS**

**A Dissertation**

**Submitted to the Graduate Faculty of the  
Louisiana State University and  
Agricultural and Mechanical College  
in partial fulfillment of the  
requirements for the degree of  
Doctor of Philosophy**

**in**

**The Department of  
Curriculum and Instruction**

**by**

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B.S., Louisiana State University, 1976  
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## Abstract

The purpose of this study was to examine the effect that the nature of instruction of French vocabulary words has on student knowledge and use of the words on five different measures: a definition recognition test, a cloze plus word bank test, a comprehension of a text containing the words, a writing assignment designed to elicit free use of these words and a test of overall reading proficiency. Eighty-one high school students in the second year course of French constituted three treatment groups: (1) traditional instruction where students were required to learn a list of 12 words paired with their English equivalents; (2) rich instruction where students were required to learn the list of words paired with a French definition which also encompassed such aspects as words families, synonyms and antonyms; and (3) extended/rich instruction where students received the same instruction as the rich group plus read magazine articles of choice daily for 20 minutes looking for the words. Materials included two sets of 12 vocabulary words, their definitions, games played with the words and the definitions for all three groups, songs with several of the words by Jean-Jacques Goldman for the rich and extended/rich instruction groups and 46 recent Francophone magazines for the extended/rich instruction group. Results indicated that on the definition recognition test traditional and extended/rich instruction were statistically superior to rich instruction. On the free use of words in writing,

no student used any of the vocabulary words during the course of the study. On text comprehension all groups performed equally. On all other measures extended/rich instruction was statistically superior to both traditional and rich instruction. These findings provide support for the inclusion of periods of free reading of print materials chosen by the students according to their interests.

## CHAPTER 1

The acquisition of vocabulary is an vital part of learning a foreign language. Indeed, as reported in studies of foreign language teaching such as the Report of the Committee of Twelve of the Modern Language Association (1900), Titone (1968), and Omaggio (1986), students have long struggled to find means of simplifying and hastening the acquisition of sufficient vocabulary to manage in the classroom or, if the opportunity arose, in the native environment. Teachers also have been concerned that their students acquire vocabulary, although perhaps for different reasons. For most of this century, in the foreign language classroom the emphasis has been on the grammatical structures of a language. Vocabulary has been important only as a tool with which to practice specific grammatical points.

During the last twenty years, however, the goal of vocabulary acquisition has changed as the purpose for learning a foreign language has evolved. Educators like Omaggio (1986) are now focusing on the true purpose that students have for learning a foreign language: the ability to survive in a foreign environment. Thus, it has been discerned that students need to be able to read the target culture's magazines, watch its movies, listen to its radio stations and speak with its natives. A perusal of recent textbooks reveals that activities involving phenomena that are actually encountered in

the foreign culture are now the norm, for example, the Holt, Rinehart and Winston Et Vous series (1990).

As one considers these purposes of language study, it becomes apparent that vocabulary is much more useful for these acts of communication than is a list of grammar rules or verb conjugations. As has been observed by Krashen (1987), travelers do not carry around grammar books - they carry dictionaries. With only a few words, one can express physical needs such as hunger and thirst, and even emotions like confusion, fear or surprise. Yet over the course of this century, the emphasis has been not on vocabulary but on grammar. The result has been that very few language students have arrived at the ability to actually use the foreign language. They experience great difficulty when required to gain meaning from a foreign magazine or newspaper.

Recently some researchers in foreign language acquisition, such as Beheydt (1987), Krashen (1989), and Bernhardt (1986), have begun to study the process of reading. Reading is beginning to be considered an important tool for vocabulary acquisition in a foreign language. After much research the topic seems to resemble the question of the sequencing of the chicken and the egg. Native language researchers such as Stahl and Fairbanks (1986) assert that vocabulary acquisition and reading ability are inseparably intertwined. In fact, vocabulary and reading appear to have a symbiotic relationship in which the development of one contributes to the development of the other. The purpose of this dissertation is to examine the effect that the nature of



instruction of vocabulary words has on student knowledge and use of the instructed words.

### A History of the Teaching of Foreign Language Vocabulary

Vocabulary study has always been shaped by the perceived purpose of language learning. As explained by Omaggio (1986), foreign language teaching has usually reflected the prevailing psychological model of the language acquisition process.

In the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries the prevailing model was one developed by faculty psychologists who considered the mind to have certain faculties for concentration, reasoning, analyzing and remembering, which could be trained through the study of certain subjects, such as mathematics and philosophy. The mind was considered to be similar to a muscle and, like a muscle, in need of exercise. The learning of a foreign language was recommended as an aid to the mind's development of higher thinking skills (Butts & Cremin, 1953).

In 1896 the National Education Association commissioned a study of modern languages in secondary schools in order to make recommendations for methods of instruction and training of teachers. According to the chairman of the committee, Calvin Thomas, the surveyed teachers "give us a picture of a somewhat chaotic and bewildering condition" (Report of the Committee of Twelve, 1900, p. 33). Teachers reported using several methods of instruction:

grammar-translation, the natural method, the phonetic method, and the reading method. The committee concluded that the method should be selected and adapted depending on the students' ages and the goals of instruction.

Two decades later the same questions were still being asked. In 1924 another study on foreign language teaching was organized. The purpose was to make a general inquiry into the teaching and learning of modern languages in the United States. The study was directed to teachers in the secondary schools and in the first two years of language courses at the university. In 1929 the Modern Language Association published the study compiled under the direction of Algernon Coleman which concluded that the only objective which was attainable in two years of language study was the development of reading ability. It recommended seeking the most effective ways of developing reading skill so that students would be capable of independent direct comprehension of texts. The study recommended that teachers seek the most effective ways to develop reading skill.

The reading method of language teaching was widely acclaimed for meeting this goal of the Modern Language Association. It began with an oral phase as an initiation into the sound system of the language. The focus of the course was on both intensive and extensive reading. Intensive reading was teacher directed, analytic and the source of material for grammar study and vocabulary acquisition. Extensive reading involved allowing the students to

independently read discourse that was written specifically for their level of achievement, thus allowing them to acquire a large passive vocabulary (Rivers, 1968).

At this period, reading the great literature of another culture was seen as the primary purpose of learning a language. The committee recommended the following: long lists of vocabulary words with their English equivalents and rules of grammar (along with their exceptions) were to be committed to memory. Students were then to translate foreign prose into English.

Vocabulary study within this methodology was somewhat limited and stilted. As explained by Rivers (1968), "It aims at providing the student with a wide literary vocabulary, often of an unnecessarily detailed nature" (p. 16). Rivers also offered a rationale for the widespread acclaim of this goal of literary knowledge: "At this period when secondary and university level education were available only to an intellectual and social elite, it was feasible to emphasize the learning of a language as the key to the great literature and philosophy of another culture" (p. 10).

The objective of teaching a modern foreign language was clear: teach literature, not the language. In this scheme, vocabulary was important only in that it enabled the student to translate a given text into English in order to demonstrate comprehension. Creating one's own meaning with the language was not considered.

During the 1920's and 30's, the school of behaviorism was developing a new approach to learning which would result in a new model of the language acquisition process. It would be based, like behaviorism, on conditioning, a process which rewards specific behaviors in order to train subjects to perform specific tasks. This stimulus-response psychology resulted in the development of audio-lingual methodology during World War II. Language was thought to be just another behavior that developed from conditioning. According to Bloomfield in 1942, "The command of a language is not a matter of knowledge. The speakers are quite unable to describe the habits which make up their language. The command of a language is a matter of practice" (p.12).

When the Russians sent Sputnik into space in 1958, there was a profound effect felt by teachers of foreign languages in the United States. The success of the Russian space program triggered the American Congress's realization that in addition to Russian superiority in space exploration, the United States was also being severely outdistanced in the ability to communicate in any language other than English. Enrollment in foreign language courses at American high schools and universities was at an historic low (Grittner, 1982). Congress passed the National Defense Education Act ( N.D.E.A.) which funded programs to improve education in mathematics, science and foreign languages. Among the sorts of activities directly funded in foreign languages were enrollment studies, a wide variety of research on language learning and teaching, materials development for language teaching and

dissemination projects (Grittner, 1982). The attention that was directed in this manner to foreign languages encouraged foundations to contribute additional money in order to support pre-service and in-service programs for teachers, development of curricula, and the preparation of materials (Grittner, 1982).

The behaviorist model of language acquisition was adopted by the vast majority of researchers and teachers. William Moulton (1961), a linguist who participated in both wartime and N.D.E.A. programs, listed the following five slogans of the day which were to guide foreign language teachers:

1. Language is speech, not writing.
2. A language is a set of habits.
3. Teach the language, not about the language.
4. A language is what its native speakers say, not what someone thinks they ought to say.
5. Languages are different. (p. 86)

This new methodology was known as the audio-lingual method and its primary focus was on the spoken language (Brooks, 1964). Audio-linguists believed that once oral skills were developed, reading skills would necessarily follow. It was believed that one should develop the four skills in the natural sequence, that is, the sequence in which they are usually developed in the first language - listening, speaking, reading, and writing. Brooks (1964) advised that the student be asked to read only what "he has learned to

understand when spoken and which he himself can actively produce" (p. 165).

Teachers were advised to introduce the written script only after a dialogue was thoroughly memorized.

The reading of documents actually encountered in the target culture was saved for the advanced levels. Few students stayed in language classes beyond the required two years. Reading was thus virtually ignored. Vocabulary study was also held in low esteem (Rivers, 1966).

However, Nelson Brooks (1964), advised that advanced students prepare their own lists of unknown words from a passage. The teacher was then urged to duplicate all the individual lists, indicating the page and line where the word could be found in the selection. Thus, Brooks believed vocabulary would be learned within a context, not as an isolated word but as an integral part of the story. Brooks believed word study was important starting with the third year of study. The student should not focus on a single vocabulary word, but rather on a word within a whole family of words that are related to it - synonyms, antonyms and associations (rain-storm-thunder-lightening-flood). It is unknown how many teachers followed the methods suggested by Brooks, but the constraints of time and energy would suggest the number was small.

Another highly respected professor of methods for foreign language teachers offered the mainstream audio-linguist viewpoint. Wilga Rivers (1968) wrote, "In an audio-lingual approach vocabulary learning is given a

minor role until the student has a sure control of the basic structural patterns and is able to express himself freely within a limited area of language" (p. 208). Rivers listed several reasons for this. Among them were the following: the large number of words, the difficulty of choosing the most useful words, and the fact that word meaning depends on context so that a simple one word definition is not always sufficient or accurate.

High school teachers who used the audio-lingual method emphasized acquisition of grammatical structures through rote drills in the first and second year language courses, while concern for vocabulary building was left for more advanced levels. A methods text by Allen and Valette (1972) advised teachers that "vocabulary study is usually postponed until after a solid grammar foundation has been established, that is, until the third or fourth years of instruction" (p. 113). The second edition of Rivers' methods text (1981) reveals a change in attitude toward vocabulary. Rivers still saw vocabulary as a vehicle for practicing structural patterns. Yet she did write, "At later stages the emphasis will be on learning to learn vocabulary so that the students may retain from listening and reading material and classroom communication what seems most relevant and interesting to them as individual learners" (p. 469). She also maintained that vocabulary study should rarely be a separate activity: "Vocabulary learning should always be in a purposeful context. Students should be involved in an activity which

requires them to retrieve from their long-term memory store vocabulary which is appropriate in the circumstances" (p.469).

Chastain (1976) saw vocabulary acquisition as fundamental to language learning. In the second edition of his text for future language teachers, Developing Second Language Skills: Theory and Practice, he suggested using a psychological profile of the adolescent to select vocabulary topics and advocated teaching the vocabulary necessary for the student to talk to others about himself. Concerning reading, he similarly advocated letting students read selections they found useful or interesting. He proposed that students be taught to process the content of a reading passage in the foreign language rather than converting it into the native language. He did not see reading as a vehicle for the memorization of word lists and stated: "Enlarging one's vocabulary is not synonymous with increasing reading fluency" (p. 309). Chastain thought that reading was a particularly important foreign language skill to be mastered because it represents an activity in which students can participate after they leave the classroom and thus continue learning about another culture.

Methods textbooks by Brooks (1964), Rivers (1968, 1981), Allen and Valette (1972), and Chastain (1976, 1988) differed little in the classroom activities suggested for the teaching of reading regardless of the language acquisition theory espoused. The point at which reading was supposed to begin differed, but the use of contextual cues and guessing were always



recommended. Techniques for acquiring vocabulary were limited to word lists, rote drills, and extensive exposure to written documents. In no methods book cited herein was it advised that students memorize a specific list of vocabulary words and their English equivalents before reading a specific text. Yet this memorization of English equivalents of foreign words has always been the norm in classrooms. This was most probably due to two factors. At first glance, it appears to be the easiest method: commit the paired words to memory and insert the foreign one where necessary in speech and writing. Second, students seem to demand this one to one correspondence of verbal codes. They are very bound to their native language and the tethering of the foreign language to the native one gives a sense of security. It is unfortunately a false security that leaves one in a quandary since there are foreign concepts that have no equivalent in the native language and foreign objects that do not exist or that exist in a quite different form in the native culture. Moreover, a student who is constantly referring back to his native language is a much less efficient reader and is more likely to abandon his quest for meaning when confronted with a long or difficult passage (Sarig,1987).

In the most recent edition of Chastain's methods text (1988), he demonstrated the evolution of his concepts. He asserted that when the students' emphasis is placed on reading for meaning as opposed to reading to explain the grammatical constructs, the students can learn to read at a much

higher level of proficiency. He continued to maintain the importance of providing necessary vocabulary to enable the students to effectively participate in real world communication activities planned for the classroom.

The question arises, however, as to what was actually happening in the classrooms. Nearhoof made the following observations after a survey of actual foreign language classrooms in 1970:

The literature tends to show a profession that is between 70 and 80 percent female, has an elitist orientation which tends toward the preparation of teachers of literature first and languages second, perceives the value of foreign languages differently from the way it is viewed by the students and the general public, has a high proportion of members who have availed themselves of little or no in-service training since being certified and has a majority of its members with no serious professional involvement in foreign language organizations. There is also evidence to suggest that the foreign language classroom is characterized by passive students, repetitive drill work, mimic-memorization activities, teacher dominance, use of English rather than the foreign language, the learning of grammar rather than communicative skills and excessive reliance upon the textbook. (p. 16)

This description of the language classroom was true in many parts of the country. Partially in response to studies similar to Nearhoof's (1970), the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages published in 1983

The Provisional Proficiency Guidelines which called for a more balanced approach to language teaching (ACTFL, 1983). According to the guidelines proposed, the four skills of language (listening, speaking, reading and writing) are all addressed at all levels of instruction. Because high school foreign language teachers face students who already possess at least some knowledge of the reading process even though they might not be consciously aware of it, the language teaching professionals advocated teaching ways of tapping into the knowledge of reading strategies already possessed. Thus students could then apply this ability to foreign language reading.

#### Recent Developments in Vocabulary Acquisition

It was in the 1980's that researchers such as Hague (1987), Swaffar (1988), and Bernhardt and James (1988) began systematically addressing second language reading and vocabulary development. Ludo Beheydt (1987) asserted that foreign language learning was "a process of 'semantization',... a continuing process of getting acquainted with verbal forms in their polysemous diversity within various contexts" (p. 55). The process of semantization involves two factors: the linguistic features of vocabulary and the psychological process of learning. To support his hypothesis, Beheydt went back to review studies and theories of linguists such as Ebbinghaus (1885) and De Saussure (1968) that the audio-linguists revolution in foreign language learning theory and many foreign language teacher trainers had

ignored. His concepts lent support to the proficiency statements developed by the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages.

De Saussure (1968) distinguished the arbitrary nature of the word as sign. There is a signifier and the signified, the sound-image and the concept. Beheydt (1987) described how the difference between verbal form, concept and referent is critical to foreign language vocabulary learning. "The French word 'mouton'... in one instance means the same as the English word 'sheep', but in another context it refers to a different concept, for which the English use the word 'mutton'" (p. 56). This example clearly demonstrates the futility of learning paired word lists: pairs perpetuate the misconception that verbal and conceptual systems of languages necessarily coincide.

Words also tend to be ordered. De Saussure (1968) described a lexicon with a hierarchy of word meanings arranged as such in a sort of network. Trier (1931) gave a more fully developed description of this semantic network theory. Word meanings are arranged with and compared to related word meanings. What the word saunter means can only be fully understood when it is compared to walk, creep and sashay. To the foreign language teacher this seems to imply that it is necessary to teach a continuum of vocabulary for any given concept.

Beheydt (1987) further explained that words also enter into a morphological paradigm of which the reader must be aware. As an example he juxtaposed the words table, tables and tablecloth. It is only when a reader knows a

word's morphological, syntactical and collocational profile as well as its meaning that he can be said to have semantized or learned a word. But a polysemous word takes its meaning in any particular instance from the surrounding context in which it is interacting. Polysemous words tend to be among the most frequently used in any given language. The sense of these words can only be obtained through context. Beheydt maintained that this renders the teaching of vocabulary out of context absurd, totally missing the essential properties of language that are the foundations of meaning.

According to Vygotsky (1962), word meaning is achieved only after mental elaborations have been performed on incoming data from the senses. Mental elaborations are simply tasks that the learner performs on the words as he tries to ascertain their meaning. Rohwer (1966, 1970) found that subjects more easily learned words for which they created a meaningful context or mental picture. Using the text's context and typographical clues and related pictures would be a type of mental elaboration as the learner tried to give meaning to the text.

Lomangino (1986) supported the studies that called for teaching foreign language students to employ the strategy of contextual guessing using pictorial, typographical, syntactic and semantic clues. She believed that fluent reading comes only through continuous practice. She advocated that foreign language teachers establish reading goals and include intensive and extensive reading early in the instructional process. Intensive reading is the close

reading by the entire class usually of a teacher selected text. Extensive reading is the reading of many texts and documents, usually at the student's individual discretion.

A study in native language acquisition is particularly relevant to the techniques of reading and vocabulary instruction mentioned repeatedly in modern methods texts such as Omaggio (1986), Krashen and Terrell (1983), Chastain, (1988) and also to Beheydt's (1987) proposals for second language reading and vocabulary development. All of these writers advocated teaching students to use contextual clues. The following study looked at student ability to use context to determine the meanings of unknown words.

Beck, Perfetti and McKeown (1982) asserted the following in relation to a study of native language vocabulary acquisition : "A related aspect of knowing a word well is richness or flexibility of knowledge. By this we mean the quality of connections among concepts in a reader's semantic memory"(p. 507). In other words, the reader must have some understanding of the concept to which a new word relates if he is to derive the meaning of the word from context. This is perhaps why native language low-ability readers do less well using context clues than do high ability readers: their conceptual knowledge is impoverished. This is equally true with foreign language vocabulary acquisition. The reader must have some knowledge of the concept being discussed if he is to be able to use context clues.

Beck and McKeown continued their study of the nature of vocabulary acquisition in first language acquisition in McKeown, Beck, Omanson and Pople (1985). This experiment involved three groups of fourth grade students, each of whom received one of three types of vocabulary instruction: (a) traditional, requiring only associations between the word and its synonym; (b) rich instruction, presenting elaborated word meanings and diverse contexts; or (c) extended/rich instruction, adding activities to extend the use of instructed words beyond the classroom. Definition knowledge, fluency of access to word meanings, context interpretation, and story comprehension were all measured. High frequency of exposure (12 as opposed to 4 encounters) yielded better results on all measures. Extended/rich instruction showed an advantage over rich in fluency of access and story comprehension. Rich instruction showed an advantage over traditional in context interpretation and story comprehension.

#### Statement of the Problem

The results of the McKeown, Beck, Omanson and Pople (1985) study of native language acquisition are of high interest to second language researchers and teachers for several reasons. First of all, if the method of instruction has an effect on what the student is able to do with vocabulary after the teacher's lesson in first language acquisition, it is highly possible that this is also true in second language acquisition. Secondly, traditional

methods of vocabulary instruction, so prevalent in native language acquisition, are equally dominant in second language classrooms. In second language acquisition as well as in native language learning, the purpose of vocabulary study extends beyond simply recognizing the definition on a test. If the student cannot actually use the word to comprehend messages which contain it, vocabulary study would seem to be of little use. Yet this is a common complaint made by both native language and second language teachers.

### The Present Study

The present study is an adaptation of the McKeown, Beck, Omanson and Pople (1985) study for foreign language vocabulary development. Three methods of vocabulary instruction are compared according to the abilities fostered by each on four sorts of measures: definition recognition, contextual guessing, reading proficiency and use of the instructed words in writing. As frequency of instruction showed improvement from all types of instruction, it was not dealt with here. Vocabulary knowledge, reading comprehension and word usage were the focus. The purpose was to propose directions for vocabulary intervention in foreign language study.



### Research Questions

Specifically, the study addressed these questions:

1. Does type of instruction have an effect on word-recognition vocabulary test performance?
2. Does type of instruction have an effect on the retention of new vocabulary?
3. Does type of instruction have an effect on the ability of students to use the instructed words in a cloze plus word-bank activity?
4. Does type of instruction have an effect on the ability of students to comprehend a text containing the instructed words?
5. Does type of instruction have an effect on overall reading proficiency in French?
6. Does type of instruction have an effect on student use of new words in compositions?

## CHAPTER 2

### Selected Review of the Literature

Several bodies of literature bear directly on the present study. First, studies of vocabulary development in both the native and the foreign language provide significant insight into the process. Also, studies of foreign language reading and the effect of vocabulary instruction on reading comprehension are crucial to the development of an effective program of vocabulary development.

#### Studies of Vocabulary Development

##### Native Language Studies

Nagy and Herman (1984) studied the implications of vocabulary breadth and depth for instructional programs, using Anderson and Freebody's (1981) definitions of breadth and depth of knowledge. Breadth refers to the relative size of a person's vocabulary knowledge and depth means the ability of a person to understand word meaning to the point of nuances or subtle implications. Nagy and Herman's figures indicated that there is an average growth of approximately 34,000 words between grades three and twelve or, in other words, nine years of an annual growth of about 3,827 words. In light of this extremely large figure, Nagy and Herman recognized that direct

vocabulary instruction could not possibly be responsible for a significant percentage of this increase. Nagy and Herman went on to identify several limitations of direct vocabulary instruction :

1. The enormity of the task is evidence that direct vocabulary instruction cannot ensure the volume of growth necessary to normal progression. Thus they supposed that this growth must result from incidental learning, listening to and reading discourse that comes from more fluent language speakers.
2. The instruction of word meanings frequently fails to produce measurable gains in comprehension of a text containing the instructed words. They cited a study by Pearson and Gallagher (1983) which reviewed the effects of vocabulary instruction prior to the reading of a passage. Pearson and Gallagher concluded that knowledge "acquired over a period of time in whatever manner appears more helpful to comprehension than knowledge acquired in a school-like context for the purpose of aiding specific passage comprehension" (p. 31).

In other words wide-reading is more helpful than vocabulary instruction, even of the specific unknown words that will be appearing in the passage.

Nagy and Herman (1984) further asserted that in light of these limitations, it is necessary to reevaluate the goals of vocabulary instruction and the criteria for what constitutes the most effective approach. They maintained that the primary goal should be to foster independent word

learning; that is, students should be taught the most efficient ways to determine word meanings on their own. They argued that this necessarily would involve a large volume of reading. Ultimately, Nagy and Herman seem to have stated that students learn the greatest percentage of their vocabularies independent of instructional programs by attending to that which they individually choose according to their own personal interests.

Beck, Perfetti, and McKeown (1982) hypothesized that a program of vocabulary instruction could develop student interest in words. As a consequence, this newly attained interest could lead to an increase in the learning of non-instructed words and to an improved ability to learn words from context. In other words, practice may perfect the skill of learning through context. Beck et al believed that content knowledge is the foundation for both word knowledge and comprehension. They proposed that the semantic content of instructed vocabulary words be chosen to strengthen existing vocabulary networks and to build well-integrated new ones.

Beck, Perfetti and McKeown (1982) demonstrated that a program of vocabulary instruction could lead to gains in comprehension. Their experiment involved an intensive program of instruction of 104 words in 75 daily lessons of thirty minutes each over a period which stretched from October to March. The subjects were fourth grade students in a small, urban public school from a low socio-economic background and who were predominantly black. The experimental group exhibited gains in vocabulary

knowledge and also gains in comprehension of a story as measured by a recall task. The experimenters explained this as resulting from the fact that the experimental group understood the vocabulary of the story and were therefore able to allocate more mental resources to the task of remembering content. In other words, the construction of passage meaning in the student's mind was easier because word meanings were understood.

A study of the acquisition of word meaning from context by children of high and low verbal ability (McKeown, 1985) showed that acquisition from context was not automatic and that less skilled readers were much less likely to have developed this skill. She suggested a modeling strategy to teach students to take advantage of context clues. The students could thus be helped to understand the stable and the flexible elements of vocabulary. McKeown observed that students need more than the limited experience with new vocabulary that was usually provided.

Kolich (1988) agreed with other researchers in native language acquisition that some sort of direct vocabulary instruction is necessary to enhance students' language skills, but pointed out that most also feel the methods usually employed are rather ineffective. She listed various research findings (Johnson & Pearson, 1984; LaBerge & Samuels, 1976) to support her argument that giving students varied exposures to words enables them to build conceptual knowledge of how words function. She maintained that

these studies showed the superiority of this sort of vocabulary development to other types of instruction.

Konopak, Sheard, Longman, Lyman, Slaton, Atkinson, and Thames (1987) compared incidental to intentional learning of words from context. Although the incidental group did acquire some words from context, the intentional group made the greatest gains. The researchers concluded that in light of the greater gains made by the intentional group, vocabulary instruction is highly advisable.

Stahl and Fairbanks (1986) summarized many different studies in their meta-analysis of the effects of vocabulary instruction. The analysis examined the effect of vocabulary instruction on text comprehension as well as which method of instruction had the greatest effect. The findings showed that vocabulary instruction does make a significant difference in scores of comprehension on passages containing the instructed words (mean effect size .97). Vocabulary instruction had a smaller but still significant effect on comprehension of passages not necessarily containing the instructed words (mean effect .30). Not all instructional methods produced statistically significant effects. Methods which provided only definitional information or which simply drilled definitional information were ineffective. The most effective methods included both definitional and contextual information, involved the students in deeper processing of the words and gave the students more than two exposures to the words. Stahl and Fairbanks (1986)

speculated that the general increase in reading comprehension produced by vocabulary instruction may not be the result of the words themselves or of the methods of instruction, but rather of an increase in incidental learning due to an increased general interest in words.

Krashen (1989) reported that there are significant gains in comprehension measures when a language arts program in native language acquisition devoted all or part of its time to either sustained silent reading or self-selected reading. Free readers did at least as well and often better than students in a program of vocabulary instruction. He noted that the results from a program of free reading look even better when allowed to run for seven months or longer although the difference between long and short programs is not statistically significant.

According to the studies cited several conclusions can be drawn which are pertinent to the present study. First of all, although students do a remarkable job of learning vocabulary with no instruction, vocabulary instruction is still important, particularly for low-ability students. Additionally, it has been demonstrated that vocabulary instruction can have an effect on comprehension of stories containing the instructed words. However, the effectiveness of a program of vocabulary instruction depends on the type of instruction given, with some instructional programs having no effect at all. Further, even when the importance of noticing certain words is not signaled, some words are learned from context, more or less naturally. Finally, it seems

that a good argument has been made in support of the benefits of a large volume of reading when that reading is selected by the student.

### Studies of Vocabulary Development in a Foreign Language

Studies of vocabulary acquisition in a foreign language are fewer in number than those of native language acquisition. The topic has gained in interest with the evolution of the purpose for learning a foreign language from the explication of grammatical structures to the performance of real communicative acts. Researchers such as Beheydt (1987) and Hague (1987) are realizing that the requisite components for foreign language functioning are similar to those necessary in the native language.

A study by Saragi, Nation and Meister (1978) assessed incidental, contextual learning of foreign language vocabulary. The acquisition of nadsat words from a reading of A Clockwork Orange by Anthony Burgess was measured. These are 241 different words, mainly of Russian origin, that occur from 1 to 209 times within the English language novel. Subjects were given the novel to read but were not told that they would be given a vocabulary test on it. Scores on the multiple choice test revealed a high correlation between the frequency of the word's usage in the text and the number of correct choices of meaning. The results suggest that the minimum number of repetitions for a word to be learned is about 10. The reader must keep in mind that this was a highly select group of subjects: 20 native



speakers of English working on graduate school projects in Indonesia.

However, the lowest score on the 90 item test was 50 %, the highest score was 96%, and the average was 76%. The lowest scoring subject learned 45 new words simply by reading a book. Although the success rate of these subjects is not generalizable to the average classroom, it nevertheless points to the notion that there is much to be gained from the act of reading.

The Saragi, Nation and Meister (1978) findings can be related to the native language study of incidental versus intentional learning of word meanings by Konopak et al. (1987). In the Konopak study the incidental learning group's words were not emphasized (i.e., underlined or called to the subject's attention) and the results indicated that students did acquire some knowledge and more when they were given multiple exposures to the words. A word from a foreign language might automatically be commanding the reader's attention, however, due to unusual letter combinations, accent marks, and in the case of the nadsat words, letters from a different alphabet.

Beheydt (1987) studied the acquisition of vocabulary in the learning of foreign languages. He found the following:

What is notably missing in the teaching of vocabulary is a systematically elaborated strategy for vocabulary acquisition that is based on the findings of linguistics and learning psychology. The simplistic view that vocabulary learning is nothing more than

memorization of a series of wordforms with fixed meanings ought finally to be discarded.(p. 55)

Beheydt (1987) offered much research to support his views. Among the studies cited was one which the German scholar Ebbinghaus performed in 1885. In this verbal learning experiment, Ebbinghaus compared the time taken by German students of English to learn eighty syllables from Lord Byron's "Don Juan" with that taken to learn ten nonsense syllables. "Don Juan", though eight times longer, was easier. Nonsense syllables do not equate to foreign language words in that usually a newly introduced word in a foreign language is given some sort of context, even if only its native language equivalent. However, it must be remembered that to a foreign language learner, a newly introduced series of syllables can appear to be little more than nonsense. In this light the evidence submitted over one hundred years ago becomes obvious: meaningfulness and context facilitate learning.

In his book Thought and Language, Vygotsky (1962) stressed the fact that word meanings are not static, fixed definitions but are rather constantly developing. A learner of any language is always refining his knowledge of its vocabulary as he is presented with known words used in new ways. Beheydt (1987) stated, "For the process of vocabulary learning this implies that it is essential that the learner be provided with a number of concrete representative usages of each word as a basis for the correct semantization of a word" (p.61).

Beheydt's (1987) review of language learning and semantization strategy led him to formulate the following list of conditions for the use of context in foreign language learning that are relevant to the present study:

1. The context of a new word should consist of known vocabulary;
2. The new word must be in a pregnant semantic context, a verbal context that prototypically evokes the concepts associated with the word;
3. The context should reveal the syntactic use and morphological structure of the word;
4. The new word must be used again and again in a variety of contexts as this provides more cognitive activity and thus many different possibilities for embedding the words in a meaningful semantic network.

According to Beheydt (1987), it is absolutely useless to memorize words or to learn them as isolated entities. This is not the way words are best remembered nor is it the way words are used. One of the primary uses of words is in reading. Indeed, the development of reading comprehension is usually the goal of vocabulary development. The Stahl and Fairbanks (1986) study of native language vocabulary development, previously mentioned, needs to be recalled here as it relates to foreign language vocabulary acquisition. Stahl and Fairbanks found that vocabulary development does not necessarily produce measurable increases in comprehension of a text containing those

words. This finding was related to the purpose for which the words were being learned. When the only aspect of the word included for instruction was definitional information, the students did poorly on comprehension of texts containing the word. It appears that the method by which words are instructed and the goal for which they are instructed have important consequences on how the words will be remembered and on what the student will be able to actually do with the instructed words.

Particularly in foreign languages, vocabulary instruction is crucial. Equally important is the method of instruction. Beheydt's (1987) conditions are extremely important if the student is to be able to use the foreign language for real world tasks, as opposed to simply supplying correct definitions on a vocabulary test.

Palmberg (1987) presented the results of a study of the development of English vocabulary by Swedish elementary school students. To elicit English vocabulary, a spontaneous production task was given, whereby students were required to write down as many English words as possible beginning with a given letter. No definitional information was demanded. An interesting feature of the report is that Palmberg called the students' vocabularies "textbook". He explained this label as referring to those words which were regularly repeated in class, and were regularly practiced by the teacher. Another finding was that the non-textbook vocabulary used (these students were also exposed to English language magazines, television, radio and music

outside of class) reflected the student's interests - rock groups, songs, computers, video games. The surprising element of this result is that even without teacher intervention or promotion, student vocabularies develop along personal interest lines.

Hague (1987) synthesized research findings on vocabulary development in first language and explored possible implications for second language researchers and teachers. She explained five theories of vocabulary knowledge and its relation to reading comprehension.

1. The aptitude hypothesis claims that superior mental ability results in superior vocabulary which in turn results in better readers (Anderson & Freebody, 1981).
2. The knowledge hypothesis explains vocabulary knowledge as a reflection of general knowledge, which in turn effects reading ability by the overall number of schemata present to which new concepts can be added (Anderson & Freebody, 1981).
3. The instrumentalist hypothesis supposes that reading comprehension is directly related to the size of one's vocabulary. In other words, the more words one knows, the more likely he is to understand a given text (Anderson & Freebody, 1981).
4. The access hypothesis is based on the notion of automaticity, or the ease with which one is able to use his vocabulary knowledge (Mezynski, 1983).

5. The instructional design hypothesis recognizes the interaction of the variables in each of the four preceding hypotheses and considers not only what and how words are learned, but also how word knowledge contributes to reading comprehension (Kameenui, Dixon & Carmine, 1987).

Hague (1987) indicated that while the instrumentalist hypothesis may be effective at the early stages of second language learning, as a student advances, the knowledge hypothesis might better describe his needs. Hague's summation fits in with cognitive psychology's model of learning. New information is organized by being attached to that which is already known. Hague recommended that students be shown how new words relate to known words and concepts. This suggestion echoes Beyhedt's (1987) recommendation that new words be given a context that consists of known vocabulary.

### Studies of Reading in a Foreign Language

Yorio's (1971) work on foreign language reading was in large part based on Goodman's (1967) seminal work in native language reading in which he called reading a "psycholinguistic guessing game". According to Goodman, native language reading involved the following:

1. the knowledge of the language (the code);
2. the ability to predict in order to make correct choices;
3. the ability to remember previous cues;
4. the ability to make associations between the different cues that have been selected.

Yorio (1971) adapted these specifications to foreign language reading and reached the following conclusions:

1. The foreign language reader's knowledge of the code is not like that of the native language reader;
2. The foreign language reader's ability to predict is hindered by imperfect knowledge of the language;
3. The foreign language reader's uncertainty or error in his choice of cues makes associations more difficult.
4. The foreign language reader's memory span language is less than that of the native language making the recollection of previous cues more difficult.

As regards vocabulary, Yorio (1971) stated that vocabulary knowledge in the native language is a function of one's education, sophistication, and personal experiences. Vocabulary acquisition in the native language is never ending: no one knows all the words. However, most native speakers at an early age learn all possible grammatical structures, at least at the recognition of meaning level. Likewise, the foreign language learner, depending on his degree of proficiency, will recognize a certain number of grammatical structures. As time goes on, he may even reach native proficiency at this recognition. However, vocabulary acquisition is more difficult. This, Yorio asserted, is due to differences in the nature of the lexical and grammatical systems.

The grammatical system is more or less a constant. The lexical system is subject to change which, although rule- governed, is nevertheless incessant. A questionnaire given to students learning English as a second language identified vocabulary as their main problem with the language. Yorio stated that words constitute more of a problem to reading than we are sometimes willing to concede.

Swaffar (1988) analyzed an extensive amount of research on reading in a foreign language. She concluded, "readers comprehend a text when they construct a mental representation for the incoming pieces of verbal information" (p. 124). She continued by saying that rarely do the mental representations of a group of readers concur, even when the readers are



expert analysts. Perhaps the construction of identical mental models of a text is not as important as is the similarity of specific features of the models.

Swaffar also found that vocabulary problems had strong effects on reading comprehension. She referred to assumptions in foreign language learning that have been based on first language research which has established high correlations between extensive reading and vocabulary knowledge.

Bernhardt (1986) listed five generalizations that can be made about reading in her synthesis of the knowledge base. They are the following:

1. The prior knowledge a reader has about a text is critical to the process of comprehending;
2. The very first decisions made about the text are crucial to the development of an appropriate model;
3. The critical features of the text must be identified for comprehension;
4. The processing of the information in the text must be done quickly if the text is to be correctly comprehended;
5. The ability to think about what is being understood while reading and to ask questions about the form the model is taking separates the good from the poor readers.

Bernhardt and James (1987) proposed a most appropriate metaphor for the process of comprehension of a foreign language text. They likened reading to the assembly of a jigsaw puzzle. At first one is tempted to force mismatched pieces together, until he gets a feel for the whole. Once a

glimmer of the whole begins to emerge, fitting in the rest of the pieces becomes easy. The whole guides the placement of its parts. Bernhardt and James cautioned that the misguided puzzle constructor - he who has a mistaken idea of the whole- will be convinced that some of the pieces are missing or were even cut wrong.

Hughes and Chinn (1986) determined that a student of English as a foreign language who learns the definitions of the 3000 most frequently used English words will know 80 to 90 percent of the words in an unsimplified text. They hypothesized that these figures were probably more or less applicable to other languages. But this still is a large number of unknown words on each page of a even a mass-market paperback book. According to Hughes and Chinn, one has the following options when confronted with an unknown word:

1. Ask someone the meaning.
2. Find a definition in a dictionary.
3. Guess at the word's meaning if it is a cognate.
4. Try to determine its meaning by analyzing prefixes, roots, and suffixes.
5. Continue reading without determining the meaning.
6. Try to draw inferences about the word from the surrounding context.

The first option of asking someone the meaning is often chosen, but is of limited use. One is often alone when reading or perhaps among others of similar proficiency in the language. Using a dictionary has been suggested by

many but creates the language learner Beheydt (1987) warns of, one who is bound to match word for word the target language with the native language. It is a very dangerous choice. Guessing at the meaning of a possible cognate is a good but sometimes ineffective method if it is used in isolation. It should only be used in conjunction with number six which requires the reader to use context to draw inferences. Usually, the reader opts for number five, simply skipping the word and hoping its meaning is not essential to the comprehension of the text. This option requires the least amount of effort, in the beginning. It might, however, prove costly if the construction of the mental model of the text proves contingent on this word. The conscientious student has a lot of difficulty ignoring an unknown word. More than one or two per page cause much anxiety and may ultimately result in frustration and retreat from the text.

The sixth option - to draw inferences about the word from the surrounding context - is the optimal one. This is the way that one's native language vocabulary develops. Hughes and Chinn (1986) asserted that only this option will help the reader expand reading vocabulary to any great extent. Hughes and Chinn developed a context clue classification scheme for English that could be transferred to many foreign languages. The element that they added to context clue schemes is grammatical clues. It is very often the grammatical constituent (prepositional phrase, conjunction, subject, object, verb) that can lead the reader to infer the correct definition of an unknown word. As an

example, consider the following sentence : " I neither want to be too fat or too thin." If the foreign reader knows the meaning of fat and that following the "either...or" conjunctive is a disjunction, he will be able to correctly ascertain the meaning of thin.

Barnett (1988) divided foreign language reading strategies into two general categories. These are labeled text-level and word-level. Text-level strategies use the passage as a whole or large parts of it to determine meaning, such as background knowledge of the topic, titles and headings, and illustrations. Word-level strategies include contextual guessing, using grammatical clues, and word families and morphology.

Frannson (1984) in a study of the effects of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation on reading comprehension in a foreign language asserted that surface-level learning is exhibited by students reading texts for which the motivation is simply an expected test. In contrast, a student who is motivated by the relevance of the text content to his personal interests and needs exhibits deep-level learning. Further, Frannson stated that if a student is not threatened by an impending factual knowledge test, he will be more capable of deep-level processing, "a state of undisturbed contact between the author and his reader" (p. 115).

If one is reading a document chosen according to his personal tastes and interests, he will necessarily have background knowledge of the topic, listed by Bernhardt (1986) as essential to comprehension. This prior knowledge will

enable the reader to think about the mental model of the text that he is constructing and to ask himself questions about it, also identified by Bernhardt (1986) as critical to comprehension. The reader will also under these circumstances be more prone to use context to infer meanings of unknown words as recommended by Hughes and Chinn (1986) because the context will be somewhat familiar to him, thus facilitating its effective use.

However one classifies word learning strategies, it is evident that the successful language reader uses them. From the above cited research in both native language and foreign language vocabulary acquisition, it is clear that the major portion of vocabulary in any language in which one is a fluent speaker or reader does not come from direct instruction. Instruction can enhance vocabulary learning skills by providing tools to direct the learner's attention to significant words and features of language and of texts. But the bulk of vocabulary comes from one's experience, what he reads and to what and to whom he listens. Furthermore, as reported by Stahl and Fairbanks (1986) in native language acquisition, vocabulary instruction may not even enhance comprehension: the enhancement of comprehension depends on the method of instruction. The importance of the method of instruction in foreign language acquisition is equally crucial to the sorts of tasks the learner will be able to perform after instruction according to Beheydt (1987).

Regarding foreign language vocabulary development, Palmberg's (1987) study

underscores the fact that students will be attentive to the sorts of words and topics in which they already have an interest.

According to these researchers, vocabulary is going to develop according to students' individual interests. As Nagy and Herman (1984) reported, the bulk of one's vocabulary in his native language comes not from direct instruction but from his experiences with the written and spoken word outside the classroom. Krashen (1989) stated that native language students who were allowed periods of free reading did as well or better on tests of comprehension than students who were in a program of vocabulary instruction.

The development of an effective program of foreign language vocabulary instruction would aid in the development of the skills identified by Bernhardt (1986) as necessary to successful foreign language reading. A program which involved much reading or exposure to language, as has been suggested by several researchers (Beheydt, 1987; Kolich, 1988; Krashen, 1989; Nagy & Herman, 1984) would contribute to all of these abilities. The very act of learning more vocabulary in real life situations would provide the necessary practice in hypothesis formation, the testing and re-formation of questions and answers about the incoming information that is necessary as one reads.

This leads us to a very important study in native language acquisition. The effects of three types of vocabulary intervention were compared by McKeown, Beck, Omanson and Pople (1985). An intriguing aspect of this study was that it involved several of the components identified by the studies

cited herein as crucial to the development of vocabulary in general and of foreign language vocabulary in particular (Beheydt, 1987). Several aspects of the study have been mentioned (Bernhardt, 1988; Krashen, 1989) as critical to the development of foreign language reading skill.

McKeown, Beck, Omanson and Pople (1985) were interested in the question of how vocabulary instruction effected higher order language processing skills such as reading comprehension. They compared not only the nature of instruction but also the frequency of encounters with the instructed words on four different measures : (a) a definition recognition test, (b) a fluency of semantic decision task which measured the processing time to make an accurate definition decision, (c) a context interpretation test which assessed the ability to interpret contexts containing the instructed words, and (d) a story comprehension test which measured the ability to recall stories containing the instructed words.

There were one control and three experimental groups in this study. The latter were defined according to type of instruction as follows:

1. traditional instruction: students learned vocabulary by making associations between words and their definitions or synonyms;
2. rich instruction: students learned vocabulary by elaboration of word definitions and discussion about words, their meanings and their uses;
3. extended/rich instruction: students learned vocabulary through the same techniques as the rich instruction group had plus the students

were required to notice and use the instructed words outside the classroom.

The findings of this study indicated the following:

1. For vocabulary definition recognition measure, all types of intervention were better than none;
2. Frequency but not type of intervention affected the size of the gain on word definition knowledge;
3. Type of instruction did have an affect on story comprehension with the high-encounter condition of only the rich and the extended/rich instruction groups leading to better performance.

The results demonstrated that for the task of definitional associations, instruction based solely on matching the word to its definition is sufficient. It was also clear that instruction which affected only vocabulary definition knowledge was not enough to affect story comprehension. Even high numbers of encounters with words that were instructed traditionally were not enough to affect the comprehension of stories. Also, frequency of encounters had no effect on the story recall task for the traditional instruction group. The performance of this group on the story recall task showed no significant difference from the control group which received no vocabulary instruction at all.

This study also provided interesting results concerning the relative effectiveness of different types of vocabulary instruction. All three types of



instruction were equal on the vocabulary definition recognition test. Rich instruction showed advantages over traditional instruction on the measure of context interpretation. Extended/rich instruction was shown to be superior to rich on the story recall task and equal to rich instruction group on the context interpretation task.

McKeown, Beck, Omanson and Pople (1985) hypothesized two explanations for the superior performance of the rich and the extended/rich groups. First, the diverse contexts present in rich instruction permitted students to construct elaborated word meanings which in turn resulted in the development of secure semantic networks for the instructed words. Second, the extended/rich instruction might have allowed the students to establish an even wider variety of semantic links, thus making the words and their definitions even more readily accessible.

An obvious criticism of this study is that since the extended/rich instruction group had more encounters with the words, their superior performance was due to this increased frequency. McKeown et al.(1985) discounted this potential criticism by claiming that greater frequency increased performance on all measures, while the extended/rich instruction showed advantages only on the story recall task. Therefore, they maintained that a greater number of encounters with the words could not be the primary factor in the success of this instruction.

The present study applied the basic design used by McKeown, Beck, Omanson, and Pople (1985) to the acquisition of vocabulary in a foreign language. However, since frequency of instruction showed improvement from all types of instruction in the native language, this factor was not included in the foreign language study.

Vocabulary knowledge, reading comprehension and word usage were the focus. An additional goal was to suggest directions for vocabulary intervention in foreign language study. If the method of instruction of vocabulary has an affect on student performance in native language acquisition, it is possible that it also has an affect on how students will perform in foreign languages. Due to the relatively recent introduction of the ACTFL Proficiency Guidelines and the increasing number of state foreign language curriculum guides which are proficiency based, teachers are now being required to direct their attention to the sorts of tasks students will be able to accomplish as a result of foreign language study. These tasks will rarely be to simply provide definitional information about selected words. The most common tasks students will probably be called upon to perform will involve comprehending and conveying oral and written communications.

Specifically, this study addressed these questions:

1. Does type of instruction have an effect on word-recognition vocabulary test performance?

2. Does type of instruction have an effect on the retention of new vocabulary?
3. Does type of instruction have an effect on the ability of students to comprehend texts containing the instructed words?
4. Does type of instruction have an effect on the ability of students to use the instructed words in a cloze plus word-bank activity?
5. Does type of instruction have an effect on overall reading proficiency in French?
6. Does type of instruction have an effect on student use of new words in compositions?

The types of instruction were similar to those in the McKeown et al.

study:

1. Traditional instruction: students will be required to pair French words with an English equivalent;
2. Rich instruction: students will listen and fill in partial definition sheets as the teacher develops in French the definitions, bringing in all sorts of information about the words-synonyms, antonyms, words families and any other information necessary to make the students comprehend the meaning without resorting to an English translation;
3. Extended/rich instruction: students will be exposed to the same definition development as rich instruction has plus daily 20 minute periods of free reading of French language magazines.

## CHAPTER 3

### Method

#### Subjects

Subjects were 81 high school students enrolled at one of two magnet public high schools in a large southeastern metropolitan area. The term magnet as used in this school system indicates that students must meet certain criterion for admission. At this high school the criterion includes parental consent, a 2.5 overall G.P.A. for the last 5 semesters and reading stanines of 5 or higher on a nationally standardized test. To remain at the high school students must maintain an overall 2.5 average. The educational program of study is college preparatory.

These 81 students made up the entire school population of French II, the second high school credit course that is required for admission at the largest university in the state. All but 3 students also received their French I, first year of high school credit, instruction at this high school. The French department here consists of two certified teachers, both pursuing doctoral degrees in foreign language education. French is spoken exclusively at all levels of French courses for at least 75% of each period of instruction.

The textbooks used in levels I, II and III of the high school program are the second edition (1982) of French for Mastery : Salut les Amis and French

for Mastery: Tous Ensemble by Valette and Valette. This series is grammar sequenced but communicatively enhanced. Salut les Amis is used for French I and the first half of French II while Tous Ensemble completes the second half of French II and is finished in French III. Many additional supplementary materials are included in all courses for communicative and/or grammar practice as well as literature from several francophone countries.

The 81 students were divided into three intact classes of 29, 28 and 24 students, all taught by the experimenter. Each class constituted a different experimental group. Group 1, traditional instruction, included 20 females and 9 males. Group 2, rich instruction, consisted of 19 females and 9 males. Group 3, extended/rich instruction, was made of 15 females and nine males. Group 1 met at the fourth period of instruction (10:49 to 11:49 on Monday and Tuesday and 1:20 to 2:20 on Thursday and Friday), group 2 at the seventh period of instruction (2:30 to 3:30 on Monday, Tuesday, Thursday and Friday), and group 3 at the first period of instruction (8:35 to 9:35 on Monday, Tuesday, Thursday and Friday). All classes thus meet 60 minutes daily, four days per week.

Students in these classes are grouped not by abilities but according to the arrangement of the master schedule. Since the master schedule attempts to meet the personal educational goals of the greatest number of students, often students who share similar interests appear in more than one class together. For example, students who take honors courses, which usually are limited to

one section, frequently share the same elective course sections. For this reason, some foreign language classes may have greater percentages of students with high grades in math because the honors geometry course which these students are taking is scheduled at the same time as one of the French II sections. The same might be true of students in honors English or in band, for example. In light of these factors, group equivalency prior to the experimental intervention was established by analyzing variance of grade point average and reading proficiency between groups.

### Materials

Instructional. The vocabulary items used in the instructional program were taken from a pilot test (see Appendix A) given two months prior to the vocabulary intervention. These words were drawn from the students' texts, French for Mastery: Salut les Amis and French for Mastery: Tous Ensemble by Valette and Valette; from two songs by Jean-Jacques Goldman, "Reprendre c'est voler" and "Appartenir"; and from a song by Yves Duteil, "Les mots qu'on n'a pas dits". All words were judged by the researcher to be useful and important to the developing vocabulary of the students and also were words to which the students had no previous formal exposure. The pilot test was administered to all 81 experimental subjects to assure that the words were neither known by the majority of students nor were the definitions easily guessed. From the resulting errors, two sets of twelve words each were

chosen for the program of instruction (see Appendix B). The words chosen were the ones that were most frequently missed. No word chosen for the instructional program received more than five correct answers on the pilot test.

A list of 12 vocabulary words paired with their English equivalents was given to the traditional instruction group at the beginning of each cycle (see Appendix C). The same list of 12 French vocabulary words each paired with a partial definition in French was given to the rich instruction group and the extended/rich instruction group (see Appendix D). These partial definitions had blanks which the students would fill in during the teacher's discussion/explanation of each word. Students in the rich and the extended/rich instruction groups also received a sentence completion sheet, which required them to fill in the blanks of sentences with the appropriate word chosen from the 12 words of instruction (see Appendix E).

A card game was also used, a matching game with the words and their definitions according to the method of instruction either in English or in French. This game was played as a question and answer game in all groups, and then in the traditional and rich groups as a concentration matching game.

The extended/rich instruction group had access to 46 francophone magazines. The magazines were chosen to appeal to the wide variety of tastes that are found among adolescents. The magazines encompassed the

subjects of music, movies, fashion, computers, electronics, animals, television, current events and sports. The titles included Glamour, A Tout Chat, Tout Terrain, L'Action Automobile, Le Cycle, and 30 Millions d'Amis. The complete list is found in Appendix F.

Rich and extended/rich instruction also completed two activities with songs by Jean-Jacques Goldman, "Reprendre c'est voler" during Cycle 1 (Appendix G) and "Appartenir" during Cycle 2 (Appendix H). These activities each involved listening to the song while completing a modified cloze activity to recognize words removed from the text and in a word bank to the side. After the verification of the modified cloze activity, students completed a writing activity which required them to write creatively in French.

Assessment. To determine group equivalency, the overall grade point average (G.P.A.) of the students and the Connecticut Department of Education's Advanced Reading Comprehension Assessment of Educational Progress in French (1987) were used. The Connecticut test is a norm-referenced test that has been determined to be both valid and reliable. (Copyright law prohibits its reproduction here.) It measures reading proficiency using pictures, advertisements, newspaper articles and letters. It was used as a pre-test to determine group equivalency and also as a post-test four months later to determine if there was any statistically significant difference between the treatment groups after the treatment.



The 24 words of instruction were divided into two sets of twelve words each. Each set was pre-tested immediately preceding the instructional cycle and post-tested at the end of that cycle. These were multiple choice vocabulary recognition tests which consisted of the French word and four English choices for its equivalent, the correct word and three distractors (see Appendix B). The order of the words was different in the pre- and post-tests.

The entire set of twenty-four words was tested at four and at eight weeks after completion of the second cycle of instruction. These were again vocabulary recognition tests constructed similarly to the pre-tests and post-tests. The order of the items was changed as well as the order of alternatives on the post-test. These tests are found in Appendix I.

Context interpretation was measured by a modified cloze test which included a word bank. Justification of the use of this procedure is offered by Oller (1984) who argued that "cloze scores were good indices of reading comprehension" (p.357). He asserted that cloze scores are more sensitive to student gains than are multiple choice tests. It was, therefore, decided that texts written specifically to include the 12 words of instruction would be used and that vocabulary words of instruction would be omitted. A word bank accompanied the text. This test was studied by a French educator and determined to be both valid and appropriate to the students' level. The word bank consisted of all 12 of the instructed words for that cycle. The texts can be found in Appendix J.

The assessment of the type of instruction on text comprehension consisted of a story written by a native speaker of French with the instructed words used naturally. Students read these approximately 200 word texts and then answered comprehension questions in English concerning the main ideas of the story. The text and questions are found in Appendix K. This text was also judged by the French educator to have content validity.

To assess the effect of type of instruction on reading proficiency, the Connecticut Advanced Reading Comprehension Assessment of Educational Progress in French was again given. The students took this test nine weeks after the completion of vocabulary instruction.

To assess the effect of type of instruction on student use of vocabulary words, an in-class writing assignment was made to respond to a story and song by Yves Duteil, "Les Mots Qu'on N'a Pas Dits." This song included a pre-reading activity in which Duteil explains the events that led him to write it. It involves a quite romantic and true story of two lovers who were mistakenly estranged due to the loss of a letter that was mailed but never received. This story was of high interest to the adolescents and the activity involved adopting one of the personas and making amends for the past. Student use of new vocabulary words was measured. They were not told that the use of these words would be counted. This activity is found in Appendix L.

### Procedure

In December, 1989 all students were given the 50 word pilot vocabulary test. The 24 words most often missed were chosen for the instructional program. These words were divided into two sets of twelve words each. A month later the Connecticut Test of Reading Proficiency in French, Advanced Level was taken by all students. Next all students signed a pledge not to discuss classroom activities outside of class until May. Subsequently, the three week vocabulary intervention began.

On the first day of each instructional cycle, all students were given the vocabulary knowledge test as a pre-test. After the completion of the pre-test, treatment began according to instruction group. Treatments were assigned to all classes randomly. The classes received the instructional treatments daily for 20 minute periods. At the end of each seven day cycle of instruction, all groups took the vocabulary definition recognition post-test and modified cloze plus word-bank test. At the end of Cycle 2 students also took a paragraph comprehension test. In addition, at this time students were given the Yves Duteil song "Les mots qu'on n'a pas dits" writing assignment to measure word usage. Four and eight weeks after termination of the program of intervention, students took again the vocabulary definition recognition test. Finally, nine weeks after the completion of instruction students retook the Connecticut Advanced Reading Comprehension Assessment of Educational Progress in French.

Treatment 1: Traditional Instruction. One class received traditional vocabulary instruction. A list of French words and their English equivalents were given to each student. The traditional instruction group was told to read over the list in preparation for a question and answer game to be played with a partner. Beyond this the teacher's role was minimal. On subsequent days of the instructional cycle, students were required to play games with the words and their definitions for 20 minutes.

Treatment 2: Rich Instruction. A second class received rich instruction. On the first day of each cycle students received a log sheet of the French words and partial definitions in French. With the teacher leading a discussion in French, definitions were developed, including discussions of word families, synonyms and antonyms. The teacher answered all questions in French using synonyms, examples and rephrasing in order to allow the students to comprehend solely in French. Students recorded these definitions individually and checked the accuracy of their definitions with a partner. At the completion of this first phase, student pairs filled in the blanks on the sentence worksheet with the appropriate vocabulary words.

On five of the following days for a 20 minute period, the rich instruction group played the same games with the words and the French definitions. On the sixth day they listened to a song by Jean Jacques Goldman and did the activity.

Treatment 3: Extended/Rich Instruction. The instructional program for third class was identical to the rich instruction group on the first day of each cycle. On five of the subsequent days, they had 20 minute periods of free reading. The free reading involved selecting from 46 recent edition French magazines on a wide variety of topics. (see Appendix F). Students were required to find the instructed words in articles of choice and to write down the sentence with the vocabulary word as evidence for the teacher. They received points for this as an incentive to the search. In addition, students were required to write two recall protocols on articles read each cycle. This was an attempt by the teacher to assure the students were actually reading for information as opposed to simply skimming for the words. The extended/rich group spent the first two days just as the rich group did. Following that, students read magazines for the allotted time each day. The Goldman song activity on the sixth day was identical to the rich group activity.

### Design

Because it was impossible to randomly assign the students to the experimental treatment groups, a nonequivalent groups design was used. The distinguishing features of this design are the administration of a pre-test and a post-test to all treatment groups, and a nonrandom assignment of subjects to the treatment groups. The G.P.A. and scores on the Connecticut Advanced

Reading Comprehension Assessment of Educational Progress in French were used to determine if there was a statistically significant difference between groups. To establish this, an analysis of variance was performed on the student scores with treatment group as the between subjects factor. As no significant difference was found, the researcher was able to use analysis of variance tests on most of the subsequent data.

The pre-test for each instructional cycle of words revealed that the extended/rich instruction group knew a significantly higher number of words than the other groups. Therefore, on all tests of vocabulary definition recognition, analysis of covariance was used with the pre-test scores as the covariate. On the tests for vocabulary definition retention on all 24 words at 4 and 8 weeks post-instruction, both pre-tests scores were used as covariates. The significance level chosen by the experimenter for this study was  $p < .05$ .

### Scoring

The assessment of the effectiveness of type of instruction on test performance was measured by the definition recognition test, the use of the word in a modified cloze test and comprehension of a story containing the instructed words. Scoring on the vocabulary word recognition test was simply whether or not the correct definition was chosen. The score equaled this total. On the cloze tests the choice of the correct word was counted, not the correct form of the word. In other words, even if a verb did not agree with a

subject, the word was still counted as correct if it was the appropriate word.

The score was the total number of correct words chosen. On the story comprehension test the answer had to be in English and correct. The number of correct responses was then counted. On the vocabulary usage test, a simple count of the number of words used was sufficient.

### Limitations

This study was limited by several factors. They are as follows:

1. The researcher was forced to use intact classes due to the infeasibility of randomly assigning students to the French II classes for the reasons previously listed such as scheduling problems caused by singleton courses. The possibility existed that students at significantly higher levels of achievement would be clustered at a certain hour. The analysis of variance performed on the students G.P.A.'s and on the scores of the pre-tested Connecticut Advanced Reading Comprehension Assessment of Educational Progress in French revealed that no imbalance existed.
2. It was necessary that the researcher also be the instructor. This limitation could invalidate the study if the groups were treated in a biased manner. The researcher sought to avoid this, however, by having a script for the rich and extended/rich instruction groups (see Appendix D for partial definition sheet).

3. The time of each class could limit the study. The traditional instruction group met either immediately before or immediately after the lunch period, the rich instruction met at the last period of instruction daily and extended/rich instruction group met at the first period of instruction. The researcher could do little to control for the effects of time of instruction.
4. The fact that all of these students had chosen to enroll in a college preparatory high school program could perhaps make it difficult to generalize these findings to other groups. However, most students who study a foreign language do intend to pursue college degrees. Particularly in this state, where two years of high school study of the same foreign language are required for admission into the largest public university, students who are in the second-year foreign language courses are generally college bound.



## CHAPTER 4

### Results and Discussion

This chapter includes both the statistical results of this study as well as a discussion of these results. Before presenting the results on the dependent measures, however, group equivalency will be demonstrated. Results will then be presented in the order of the research questions enumerated in Chapter 2. Five types of vocabulary knowledge were evaluated: (a) definition recognition, (b) comprehension of texts containing the instructed words, (c) word usage on modified cloze plus word-bank tests, (d) reading proficiency in French and (e) free usage of the words in a writing assignment. A discussion of the results in relation to each research question answered will explain their significance.

#### Group Equivalency

The two measures of group equivalency were the students' overall grade point averages at mid-term (GPA) and scores on the Connecticut Advanced Level Reading Proficiency Test in French. The mean scores are presented in Table 1.

Table 1

Means and Standard Deviations on Group Equivalency Measures

INSTRUCTION GROUP	<u>n</u>	GPA	READING PROFICIENCY
Traditional	28	3.08 (.62)	23.32 (4.99)
Rich	28	3.17 (.57)	23.25 (4.77)
Extended/rich	24	3.29 (.59)	24.12 (5.17)

Results from the analysis of variance for grade point average with group as main effects indicated that the groups were not significantly different,  $F(2,77) = 0.85$ ,  $p < .4308$ . The analysis of variance on the reading proficiency test means showed no significant difference between groups,  $F(2,78) = 0.23$ ,  $p < .7915$ . Based on these measures, group equivalency was assumed prior to the commencement of the three week program of vocabulary intervention.

Definition Recognition Vocabulary Test

A 12 word test of vocabulary word definition recognition was given in much the same form both prior to and immediately following instruction for each of the cycles. The complete 24-word vocabulary word definition recognition test was given at four weeks and at six weeks after completion of instruction of the second cycle of words. These results respond to the research questions which dealt with the effect of type of instruction on

word-recognition vocabulary test performance and the effect of type of instruction on the retention of taught vocabulary.

Table 2

Means and Standard Deviations on Definition Recognition Test

INSTRUCTION GROUP	<u>n</u>	Cycle 1 Pre	Cycle 1 Post	Cycle 2 Pre	Cycle 2 Post
Traditional	28	2.29 (1.28)	11.93 (.26)	2.79 (1.18)	11.18 (1.33)
Rich	28	3.11 (1.42)	10.15 (1.63)	2.50 (1.48)	9.93 (1.71)
Extended/Rich	24	3.69 (1.94)	11.14 (1.61)	3.86 (1.75)	11.09 (.85)

Table 2 shows the results of the first question: Does the type of instruction have an effect on vocabulary recognition test performance? Pre- and post-test scores from both cycles are displayed in the table. The pre-test for the cycle one words revealed a significant difference of  $F(2,78)$  equal to 5.17,  $p < .0079$ . The Newman-Keuls post hoc multiple comparisons test was performed on the means that had the greatest difference, traditional and extended/rich instruction. This comparison showed that prior to instruction extended/rich performed significantly better on the definition recognition test. Analysis of covariance was performed on the post-test scores with the pre-test scores as the covariate. This analysis revealed that

the covariate made no significant difference in the post-test scores of the three groups,  $F(2,75)$  equal to .65,  $p < .42$ . There was, however, a significant difference between groups,  $F(2,75)$  equal to 12.91,  $p < .0001$ . The Newman-Keuls post hoc multiple comparisons test revealed that traditional instruction performed significantly better than both rich and extended/rich instruction at  $p < .001$ . Extended/rich instruction was also significantly better than rich at  $p < .05$ .

The results for the cycle 2 words were similar. The pre-test revealed a significant difference between groups prior to instruction,  $F(2,74) = 5.33$ ,  $p < .0069$ . The Newman-Keuls analysis indicated that the extended/rich instruction group was superior at  $p < .05$  to both the traditional instruction group and the rich instruction group before the second cycle of instruction started. The analysis of covariance performed on the post-instruction scores revealed that the pre-test scores did not have a significant effect on the post-test scores,  $F(2,74)$  equal to .31,  $p < .31$ . Again the analysis revealed a significant difference between groups,  $F(2,74)$  equal to 6.28,  $p < .0031$ . The Newman-Keuls analysis revealed that both traditional and extended/rich instruction groups were significantly better than rich at  $p < .05$ . There was no significant difference between traditional and extended/rich instruction.

The second question to be addressed concerns the retention of word knowledge: Does the type of instruction have an effect on the retention of new vocabulary? Results of scores on the word recognition test on all 24 words given at four weeks and at eight weeks after the conclusion of instruction are displayed in Table 3.

Table 3

Means and Standard Deviations for Retention of Vocabulary at 4 and 8 Weeks

INSTRUCTION GROUP	<u>n</u>	4 WEEKS	8 WEEKS
Traditional	28	22.14 (1.48)	21.66 (1.73)
Rich	28	17.00 (3.50)	15.79 (3.30)
Extended/Rich	24	20.17 (2.96)	19.35 (3.19)

At four weeks the results of the analysis of covariance with scores from both pre-tests used as covariates indicated significant differences between groups of  $F(2,71) = 21.46$ ,  $p < .0001$ . The Newman-Keuls analysis revealed that both the traditional instruction and the extended/rich instruction groups were remembering the words significantly better ( $p < .001$ ) than the rich instruction group. The difference between the traditional and the extended/rich instruction groups was also significant at  $p < .05$ , with traditional outscoring extended/rich.

Results of the test eight weeks after the completion of Cycle 2 showed significant differences between groups of  $F(2,73) = 27.87$ ,  $p < .0001$ . The Newman-Keuls post hoc multiple comparisons of means revealed significant superiority of both traditional instruction and extended/rich instruction over that of rich instruction at  $p < .001$ . Traditional instruction was also superior to extended/rich instruction at  $p < .05$ .

Use of Instructed Words on Cloze plus Word Bank Tests

The next question to be addressed concerns the effect that type of instruction may have on the ability of students to use the instructed words in a cloze activity accompanied by a word-bank. Performance on each of the cloze plus word bank tests had similar results. Students were administered this test at the end of each cycle of instruction. Table 4 displays the means and standard deviations of each instruction group.

Table 4

Means and Standard Deviations on Scores on Cloze Tests

INSTRUCTION GROUP	<u>n</u>	CLOZE 1	CLOZE 2
Traditional	28	5.75 (3.40)	3.96 (1.97)
Rich	28	6.04 (2.85)	4.96 (1.56)
Extended Rich	24	7.45 (2.91)	6.00 (1.51)

The cloze test measured the ability of the students to use context to interpret meaning and thus insert the appropriate word chosen from the list of vocabulary words into a story. This ability was affected by type of instruction. The analysis of variance on the means from the first cloze had an  $F(2,75) = 2.08$ ,  $p < .133$ . The analysis of variance on the second cloze test showed a higher  $F(2,77) = 9.02$ ,  $p < .0003$ . On the second cycle's set of means, the post hoc comparisons revealed significant differences which showed that extended/rich instruction was superior to traditional instruction

of vocabulary words,  $p < .001$ . Extended/rich instruction was found to also be significantly better than rich instruction at  $p < .05$ .

### Text Comprehension

The next question to be discussed is the effect of type of instruction on the ability of students to comprehend a text containing the instructed words. This was a story written by a native speaker to include the words of instruction. The results are shown in Table 5. The highest score possible on this measure was four points.

Table 5

#### Means and Standard Deviations for Type of Instruction on Text Comprehension

INSTRUCTION GROUP	<u>n</u>	SCORE
Traditional	28	2.19 (1.44)
Rich	28	2.52 (1.16)
Rich\Extended	24	2.87 (2.86)

The analysis of variance on these results revealed a between groups effect of  $F(2,73) = 1.80$ ,  $p < .172$ . This difference was not statistically significant.

### Reading Proficiency

The type of instruction seems to have had its greatest effect on overall reading proficiency in French. Performance on the Connecticut Advanced Level Test of Reading Proficiency in French is depicted in Table 6. The numbers are the mean scores for each group on this 40 item test.

Table 6

#### Means and Standard Deviations on Reading Proficiency Test Post

##### Instruction

INSTRUCTION GROUP	<u>n</u>	POST-PROF
Traditional	28	24.39 (4.58)
Rich	28	24.79 (3.69)
Extended Rich	24	29.00 (4.44)

The analysis of variance between the three groups revealed that there was a statistically significant difference between the groups,  $F(2,77) = 9.04$ ,  $p < .0003$ . The superiority of the extended/rich instruction was significantly better than each of the groups according to the Newman-Keuls post hoc tests of multiple comparisons at  $p < .001$ . The difference between traditional and rich instruction was not found to be significant on this measure.



### Use of Instructed Words in Writing

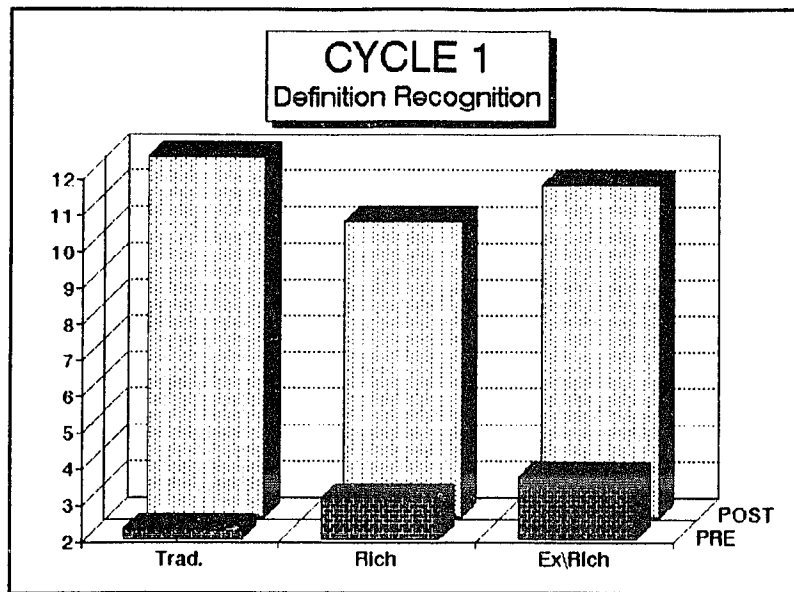
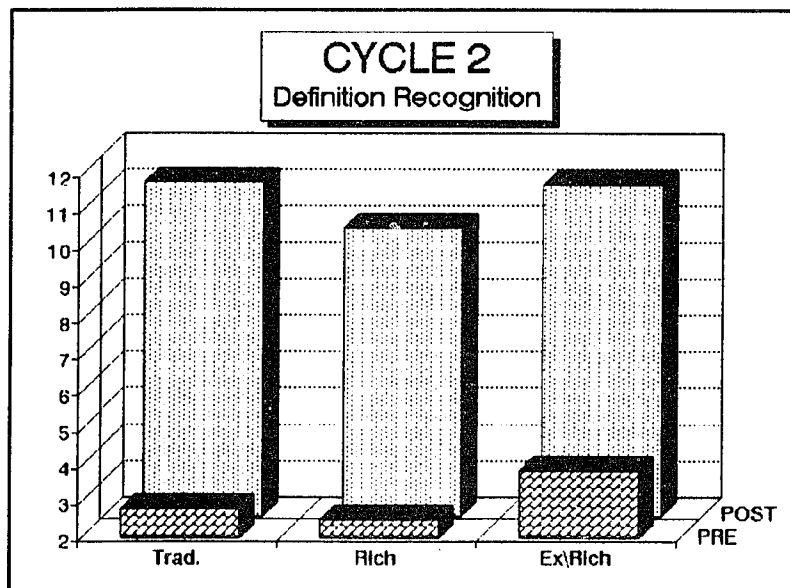
Finally, the question of the effect of type of instruction on student use of new words in compositions will be addressed. The writing activity was expected to elicit student use of the instructed vocabulary. It was based on a romantic song written by Yves Duteil concerning a couple whose romance was accidentally terminated due to the loss of a letter. The students were required to adopt the role of one of the lovers and to try to make amends for the preceding 30 years. Not a single student employed any of the instructed words. It was as though these words were not a part of their vocabularies, although the vocabulary definition recognition test and the text comprehension test had been completed the previous day.

### Discussion

The results of this study can best be understood by looking again at the six research questions posed. Each of the research questions will be discussed in the order in which they were presented in Chapter 1.

1. Does type of instruction have an effect on word recognition vocabulary test performance?

In response to the first question concerning the effect of the type of instruction on vocabulary word definition recognition test performance, it is evident that all types of instruction produced positive results. Figures 1 and 2 show the comparison of pre- and post- instruction scores for all three groups.

**Figure 1****Figure 2**

All groups had dramatic increases in the means of test scores. By the seventh day of each instructional cycle, most of the students in all of the groups had learned nearly all the words. However, students in the rich and the extended/rich instruction groups never saw the English definition of the

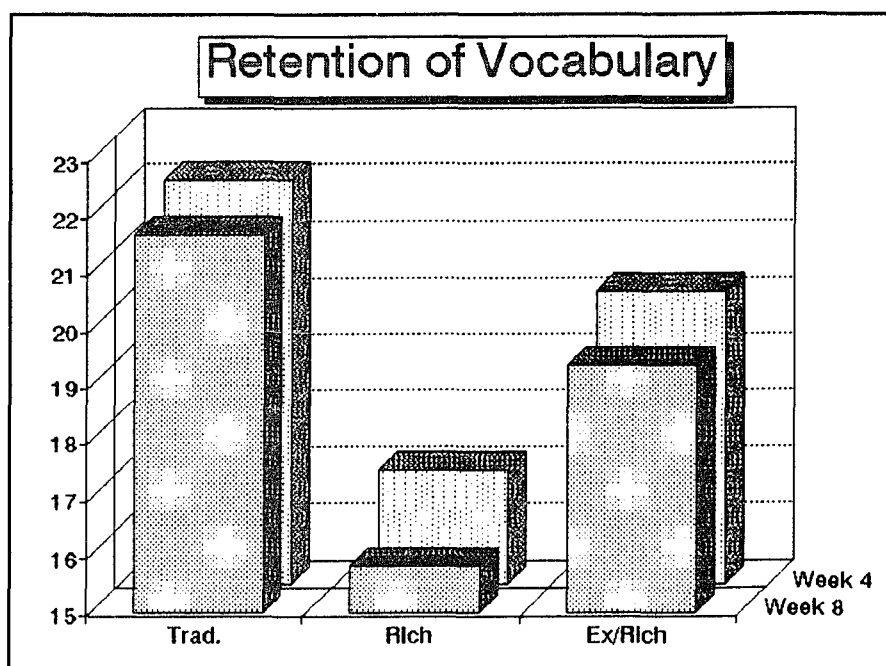
words prior to the test. These students were presented and practiced the definitions in French. Traditional instruction was significantly better than both rich and extended/rich. Extended/rich was also significantly better than rich. Judging from the extended/rich group's scores on the tests, there was no real need for the teacher to provide English definitions of the French words to the students. Apparently, foreign language students are quite capable of formulating the English definition from the French one presented by the teacher. Most of the definitions were automatically recognized by the extended/rich group in English. Perhaps the presentation of the definitions in French and the in class practice of them in reading the magazines caused the vocabulary words to become attached more or less naturally to the English equivalent that is already in these students' command.

One must ask the causes of the rich instruction group's significantly poorer performance from the traditional instruction group. It seems as if rich instruction alone was not enough to provide a better semantic foundation for the vocabulary words in the students' memories. Results on the vocabulary definition word recognition tests were significantly different only when the presentation in French of the definitions was coupled with the periods of free reading.

These results are similar to the results obtained by the McKeown, Beck, Omanson, and Pople (1985) study. They summarized, "instruction based only on definitional association is enough to affect word knowledge"(p.532). Results obtained in the present study echo this. If the desired goal of a program of vocabulary intervention in the foreign language

is simply recognition of the English equivalents for the foreign words, traditional instruction is sufficient. Indeed, if this is the sole purpose, traditional instruction techniques are superior. Traditional instruction is much less time consuming and requires less effort from teacher and student alike.

2. Does type of instruction have an effect on the retention of new vocabulary?



**Figure 3**

Although McKeown et al. did not address the question of vocabulary retention in their study, it was felt to be most important to consider this aspect in this study. Acquisition and retention of vocabulary plays a very important role in foreign language learning. The traditional instruction and the extended/rich instruction groups both performed better than the rich instruction group. Figure 3 graphically compares these scores. Again, one

must remember that the extended/rich group knows two definitions for every one definition the traditional group knows. It is clear that for memorizing definitions, traditional vocabulary instruction in a foreign language works well: the English definitions paired with their foreign language equivalents are learned and remembered. Extended/rich worked well and the students learned a French definition, as well.

In answer to the research question, traditional vocabulary instruction works best for tests of recognition of native language equivalents of foreign words. However, this sort of task is useful only in a language classroom. It is only a foreign language teacher or student who would want a definition/equivalent in a different language. More often in the real world when someone does not understand a word, the speaker is required to use the language being spoken to explain its meaning.

3. Does type of instruction have an effect on the ability of students to use the instructed words in a cloze plus word-bank activity?

Performance on the cloze tests showed results that indicated that by the second modified cloze test, the extended/rich instruction group performed significantly better than both traditional and rich instruction. Table 7 has the results in percentage of correct responses form.

Table 7

Scores as Percentage Correct on Cloze Tests

<b><u>CLOZE 1</u></b>		<b><u>CLOZE 2</u></b>	
INSTRUCTION GROUP		INSTRUCTION GROUP	
Traditional	64%	Traditional	44%
Rich	67%	Rich	55%
Extended/Rich	83%	Extended/Rich	67%

The McKeown et al. study's measure to determine context interpretation ability was not a modified cloze as in this study. As explained in the assessment materials section of Chapter 3, it was felt that for the foreign language study, the cloze test accompanied by a word bank was appropriate. However, results of the context interpretation task in the McKeown et al. (1985) study were similar to the results for the cloze plus word bank test used here. In the native language study, the extended/rich and rich instruction groups performed significantly better than the traditional instruction group. McKeown et al. report "on tasks that presented words in context, richness of instruction provides an advantage for integrating words and context"(p.533). In the present foreign language study, the free reading of magazines seems to have provided the necessary integration of words and context.

On the first cloze plus word bank test all groups performed equally well. It would seem that the increased exposure to the periods of free reading were the factor that increased the statistical significance of the extended/rich group on the second cloze plus word bank test.

4. Does type of instruction have an effect on the ability of students to comprehend a text containing the instructed words?

The fourth question involves a task that is often required in the world outside the classroom. Improving student performance in text comprehension is one of the primary reasons for teaching vocabulary. For the purpose of discussion, Table 8 has the results on the text comprehension test in percentages of mean correct responses per group.

Table 8

Scores as Percentage Correct on Text Comprehension Test

INSTRUCTION GROUP	PERCENTAGE CORRECT
Traditional	54
Rich	63
Extended/rich	71

While the traditional instruction group was studying the French words paired with their English equivalents, the rich and extended/rich groups were learning a whole family of related words and concepts, synonyms and antonyms. These students were necessarily processing a great deal of information presented to them in the teacher's discussion and in the Goldman songs. They were formulating questions according to the psycholinguistic guessing game of which Yorio (1971) wrote. These

attempts at formulating and answering questions based on the material being read seems to have paid dividends. Although the difference between the traditional instruction and the rich instruction groups did not prove significant, it is worth noting. The difference between traditional instruction and extended/rich instruction, on the other hand, was even greater. By adding the element of free-reading to the rich instruction, the difference between traditional instruction and extended/rich instruction grew to seventeen percent. This difference did not prove to be statistically significant.

These results are similar to those obtained in the McKeown et al. study although our measures were somewhat different. The McKeown et al. study used a story recall measure while in this study comprehension questions in the native language were used. In the first language acquisition study it was also shown that extended/rich and rich instruction enhanced comprehension. Likewise, those researchers believed their findings suggested that for enhancing comprehension, only extended/rich instruction increased comprehension of a story containing the instructed words.

##### 5. Does type of instruction have an effect on overall reading proficiency in French?

The answer to the question concerning the effect of type of instruction on reading proficiency test scores is the most profound of the study. The development of one's proficiency in a foreign language is one of the reasons



for continuing study. An instructor would hope that each week of language study would be contributing toward the goal of increased proficiency. Improving reading proficiency is the stated goal of many programs of vocabulary study. Yet the results herein demonstrate that the only group having more than a one and a half point increase after an entire semester of study was the extended/rich instruction group.

Table 9

Pre and Post Instruction Reading Proficiency

INSTRUCTION GROUP	<u>n</u>	PRE	POST
Traditional	28	23.32 (4.99)	24.39 (4.58)
Rich	28	23.25 (4.77)	24.79 (3.69)
Ext/Rich	24	24.12 (5.17)	29.00 (4.44)

Over the course of the semester, the only difference in the instructional program between the three classes was the three-week intervention of this study. The only item of instruction the extended/rich instruction group had that neither of the others had were 20 minute periods of free-reading. By observing Table 9 it is clear that only the extended/rich instructional group experienced a five point increase on the reading proficiency measure. The rich group's increase was only one and a half points. The traditional instruction group's was even less.

One can speculate on several possible explanations of why the extended/rich group's performance was superior. It is likely that the periods of free reading allowed the students to develop strategies for using context to create meanings for unknown words. The process of free reading probably allows students to develop the skill of creating personal elaborations. Rohwer (1966) maintained that this better serves memory. In addition, the reason for the superior scores of the students in the extended/rich instruction group may be more psychological. These students had success in obtaining meaning from texts without knowing every word's English equivalent. It could be that along with practice making perfect certain skills, it also calms anxiety. These students seem to have tolerated text uncertainty better than those in the traditional or rich instruction groups.

The McKeown et al. study had similar results. They report that extending instruction beyond the normal classroom activities usually associated with vocabulary instruction held advantages for creating a readily available network of associations that students could draw upon for establishing an interpretation of the new situation. This proved to be true in the present study also. On the reading proficiency measure, none of the words of instruction were encountered. For all unknown words the students had to use context interpretation skills in order to make an accurate response. The extended/rich instruction group showed significant superiority to the others in their ability to do this.

These results to the first five research questions indicate that if all a foreign language program is attempting to instill is the ability to recognize the native language equivalents of foreign words, traditional instruction is sufficient. However, if the goals of the program of instruction include the ability to use context to decide which word belongs in a paragraph, as in the cloze accompanied by the words bank activity, or the improvement of reading proficiency in the target language, it is obvious from these results that traditional instruction is inadequate and that rich instruction is not enough. To meet the goals of context interpretation or improvement of reading proficiency, extended/rich instruction is required.

6. Does type of instruction have an effect on student use of new words in compositions?

The results to this question were very disappointing. No one used any of the vocabulary words over the course of the study. This was perhaps because none of the students had ever had any practice in creating contexts in sentences for the words. Another explanation might be that they did not think of the words as their own as long as they were objects of classroom study. During the final month of school, nine weeks after the program of intervention had been completed, three students in the extended/rich instruction group did each use one of the target words in an in-class writing assignment. Perhaps this is evidence of an incubation time for a word and its definition to be absorbed into the productive lexicon of a foreign language student.

The research question encompassing all six of the above listed questions concerns the overall merit of each method of instruction. Indeed, the relative effectiveness of traditional, rich and extended-rich vocabulary instruction on student knowledge and use of vocabulary words is the focus of this research. These results are stated as a series of pair-wise comparisons in Table 10.

Table 10

Pattern of Results

MEASURE	Ext./rich vs.Rich	Ext./rich vs.Trad.	Rich vs.Trad.
Def. Recognition	ER > R	ER < T	R < T
Def. Retention	ER > R	ER < T	R < T
Cloze	ER > R	ER > T	R = T
Text Comp.	ER = R	ER = T	R = T
Use of New Words	ER = R	ER = T	R = T
Reading Prof.	ER > R	ER > T	R = T

This table reveals that on the majority of measures included in the present study, extended/rich instruction was significantly superior to both traditional and rich instruction. All groups were equal on the text comprehension measure. On definition recognition and retention measures, traditional instruction was superior to both rich and extended/rich instruction. Extended/rich instruction was also superior to rich on these

measures. On the cloze plus word bank measure, extended/rich instruction was superior to both traditional and rich instruction. On the reading proficiency measure extended/rich instruction outperformed both traditional and rich instruction. These comparisons indicate that 20 minutes of free reading of magazines added to rich instruction significantly enhanced student ability to use not only the vocabulary words, but also student ability to use context to figure out unknown words. This resulted in significantly better scores on a modified cloze activity as well as in significantly superior scores on the reading proficiency test.

## CHAPTER 5

### Summary, Conclusions and Implications, and Recommendations

#### Summary

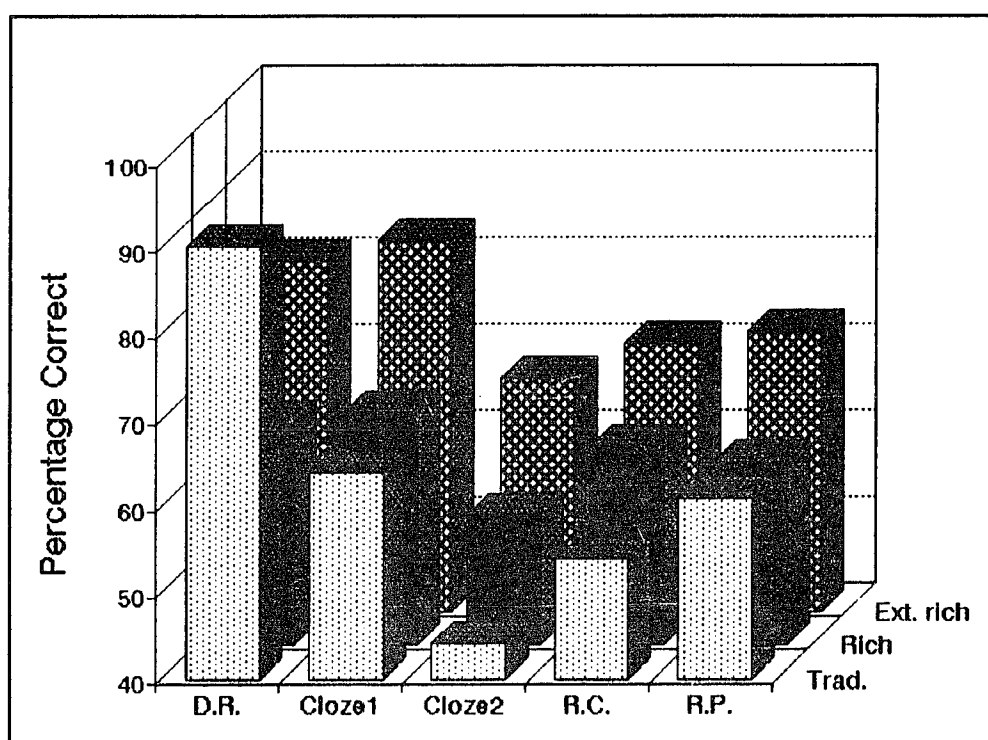
Based on work done in native language vocabulary instruction by McKeown, Beck, Omanson and Pople (1985), the present study compared the effects of three different types of vocabulary instruction in a foreign language on five different measures: vocabulary definition recognition, text comprehension, cloze accompanied by word bank test performance, reading proficiency and voluntary usage of instructed words in a writing assignment. The different types of instruction were:

1. Traditional instruction consisting of French words paired with an English equivalent.
2. Rich instruction involving the development of French definitions, bringing in all sorts of information about the words, such as synonyms, antonyms, and words families.
3. Extended/rich instruction including everything involved in rich instruction plus daily 20 minute periods of free reading of French language magazines.

To ensure group equivalency in this non-equivalent groups design where the random assignment of subjects to the intact classes was impossible, grade point average and reading proficiency, as measured by the Connecticut Advanced Reading Comprehension Assessment of Educational Progress in French, were determined prior to treatment. Analysis of variance on both of these showed that there were no significant differences

between groups before the program of vocabulary intervention began. Pre-test scores on the vocabulary definition recognition test indicated that the extended/rich group performed significantly better than the other groups. On all measures using vocabulary definition recognition, therefore, analysis of covariance was used with the pre-test scores as the covariate. All other measures were analyzed using analysis of variance.

The pattern of results obtained by the data collected on these measures answered the question underlying this study: what is the relative effectiveness of traditional, rich and extended-rich vocabulary instruction? These results are graphically displayed in Figure 4 (DR=Definition Recognition; RC=Text Comprehension; RP=Reading Proficiency).



**Figure 4**

This figure shows most succinctly how each group rates against the others on each measure. Traditional instruction is significantly superior only on the vocabulary definition recognition test. Extended/rich instruction is significantly superior to both rich and traditional instruction on all the other measures depicted here except on the text comprehension measure. Extended/rich instruction was superior on this measure, but the difference was significant at the  $p < .10$  level, not at the  $p < .05$  level which was chosen for the study. Rich instruction was not significantly better than traditional on any of the measures. On the voluntary use of vocabulary words in a writing assignment, none of the students used any of the instructed words in writing during the course of the experiment.

### Conclusions and Implications

From the results of this study, several conclusions can be drawn. These conclusions hold important implications for foreign language teaching.

This study indicates that the results obtained by the McKeown, Beck, Omanson, and Pople (1985) study are applicable to foreign language vocabulary acquisition. In the McKeown et al. (1985) study, results indicated that on the vocabulary definition knowledge test, all types of instruction were equally effective. This vocabulary definition knowledge was shown not to necessarily effect comprehension of a story containing the instructed words. Both the extended/rich and the rich instruction groups were better at story comprehension than the traditional instruction group.



McKeown et al. concluded that there were two qualities of the rich and the extended/rich instruction groups that led to this superior performance.

These qualities were (a) the development of elaborated words meanings and (b) the presentation of diverse contexts "which apparently resulted in the development of semantic networks around the learned words" (p.533). They theorized that students were then able to use these semantic networks to understand the relationships of the words to the given contexts presented and from these contexts to develop an integrated representation of meaning.

In the present study all types of intervention were effective for word recognition vocabulary test performance. Type of instruction did not have a significant effect on text comprehension. As to the ability to use context and knowledge of a vocabulary word to complete a cloze accompanied by a word bank activity, there were significant differences among the three groups of instruction. These differences hold several implications for classroom teaching practices.

The major finding of this study concerns the relative effectiveness of traditional, rich and extended/rich vocabulary instruction. From Figure 4 it is evident that traditional vocabulary instruction has but one advantage : vocabulary definition recognition test performance. A language learner would rarely be asked in a foreign environment to give the English equivalent for a series of foreign words. On all the tasks that are appropriate in a real world situation, the extended/rich group was superior or far superior to the traditional and rich instruction groups.

The answer to the question concerning the effect of type of instruction on reading proficiency test scores was most definitive. Indeed, proficient reading comprehension is one of the purposes of language study, particularly for the college bound student. The periods of free reading were the single difference between the groups over the course of the entire semester. Although these periods of free reading lasted only three weeks, the class which experienced them was the only group to sustain a five point gain in overall reading comprehension mean raw scores. Rich instruction produced a one and a half point gain and traditional instruction even less. The analysis of variance showed that the extended/rich group's gain was significantly higher than either of the other groups. Individual students in the extended/rich group showed increases of up to 13 points on a 40 point test. These results imply that by adding 20 minute periods of free reading to the foreign language course, significant gains may be made in reading proficiency. One can only postulate the outcome of a year long program that included 20 minute periods devoted to free reading.

Beheydt (1987) maintained that the memorization of words as isolated entities was futile. This has been unquestionably demonstrated. The traditional instruction group could do little with the words other than identify their English equivalent on a recognition test. Even in the cloze activity, with the English equivalents of the words before them, most students could not put the words in the appropriate places in the paragraph.

It has been demonstrated by this study that the sole achievement of mastering a list of foreign words paired with their English equivalent is language classroom test performance. There is no value beyond this. If a student who learns the definitions in French and then reads magazine articles achieves much the same score on a word recognition vocabulary knowledge test, it is clear that there is no reason for the intrusion of English into the foreign language classroom. The classroom implication is obvious. The language of instruction should be the target language to the greatest extent possible.

The present study in second language acquisition of vocabulary supports Nagy and Herman's (1984) assertion made in relation to first language acquisition: the instruction of word meanings frequently fails to produce measurable gains in comprehension of a text containing the instructed words. The scores on the text comprehension test when viewed as percentage of correct responses revealed scores of 54% for traditional instruction, 63% for rich instruction and 71% for extended/rich instruction. These differences were not significantly different at the  $p < .05$  level. However, at the  $p < .10$  level, the difference between extended/rich and traditional instruction was significant. When the previously mentioned practice of maximum classroom use of the target language is followed, the teacher should also include a wide variety of print materials. This difference between rich and extended/rich instruction is what accounted for the extended/rich group's superior performance. The students should be

allowed to choose their reading material freely, without anxiety caused by an impending factual knowledge test.

Nagy and Herman (1984) further asserted that in light of certain limitations to vocabulary instruction, it is necessary to reevaluate the goals of vocabulary instruction and the criteria for what constitutes the most effective approach. They maintained that the primary goal should be to foster independent word learning. They further argued that this necessarily involves a large volume of reading. This study has revealed that in addition to the limitations noted by Nagy and Herman, the method of instruction determines what the student will be able to do with the target words. Indeed, it seems that the method of instruction may determine what the student can do with any grouping of words in the target language. Whenever one is faced with a natural foreign language text, it is likely that there will be unknown words. If the reader believes he can only comprehend by translating word for word, he will have great difficulty.

Moreover, the application of the speculation made by Stahl and Fairbanks (1986) has been shown to be relevant to second language learning also: the general increase in reading comprehension produced by vocabulary instruction may not have been the result of the words themselves, but rather of an increase in incidental learning due to an increased general interest in words. Although all groups performed similarly at the  $p < .05$  level on the text comprehension measure, the difference in scores on the reading proficiency test was highly significant. The extended/rich instruction group's reading proficiency score was significantly better than

either of the other two groups at the  $p < .001$  level. From this fact it may be concluded that the 20 minute periods of free reading added to rich instruction were contributing reading skill to the extended/rich instruction group. Again, the implication is clear: allow students access to a wide variety of interesting print material for their reading enjoyment. The effort will be rewarded by gains in reading proficiency.

Beheydt (1987), it will be recalled from Chapter 2, listed several stipulations for successful foreign language vocabulary learning. These include: (a) having a context for a new word consist of known vocabulary; (b) having this context be semantically pregnant, or a context that prototypically evokes the concepts associated with the word; (c) having the context reveal the syntactic use and morphological structure of the word; and (d) using the new word again and again in a variety of contexts in order to provide more cognitive activity and many different possibilities for embedding the words in a meaningful semantic network. In addition to contributing to the learning of new vocabulary, it seems that meeting these stipulations also contributes to the development of overall reading proficiency in a foreign language.

Beheydt's (1987) stipulations for vocabulary study were followed naturally by the students in their periods of free reading. By choosing to read articles of interest, they already were in possession of a certain amount of background knowledge and some of the vocabulary. An article about a familiar subject will be pregnant semantically, which by necessity will reveal the syntactic use and morphological structures of target words. As

the assignment was to read many articles and to find the vocabulary words used within them, most of the words were found again and again in a variety of contexts. Apparently the additional cognitive activity did indeed embed the words in a more useful semantic network.

It seems obvious from these results that including popular French magazines and newspapers in the foreign language classroom would have positive effects for students. Besides the demonstrated gains in reading comprehension, teacher observation of the students showed that the students maintained positive attitudes toward free reading. Colleagues often ask upon hearing a description of this study how was it verified that students were really reading the magazines. Strict verification beyond that explained herein was absolutely unnecessary: students love reading magazines. The classroom became library-quiet during the periods of free reading. This atmosphere of intense concentration was witnessed also when the activity involved listening to music. As teachers we sometimes fail to use student interests to our advantage. An enthusiastic class is far easier to face than an apathetic one.

It seems evident to this researcher that foreign language teachers must make every effort to use the foreign language almost exclusively in every sort of classroom activity, including vocabulary study. During the course of this experiment I tried to make the sessions as realistic as possible. I imagined myself a native speaker with no knowledge of the native tongue of my interlocutors. I could thus give no translation, even when begged for one. Students had to search through their repertoire of strategies for

acquiring information. It was not a top student who discovered that by saying the word "synonym" with a French accent, she could start quite a verbal flow from her teacher. This started a flurry of activity as other students asked for "exemples" and "petites histoires". The students were of necessity using French to discover meanings that they needed to know. Students have more foreign words in their vocabularies than they are willing to admit. They are not as comfortable with the emerging lexicon and therefore less willing to use it. When forced though, both teacher and student have wonderful realizations. These were marvelous sessions, after which both students and teacher were exhilarated having completed an exhausting activity but likewise having attained the goal of comprehension.

The disappointing result of this research was the fact that no one used the words in the writing assessment. From lack of natural use of any of the vocabulary words during the course of the study, we might conclude that there is a delay time before a newly acquired word becomes a part of the productive vocabulary. During the final month of classes, three students in the extended/rich instruction group did each use one of the target words in an in-class writing assignment. Apparently, there may be an incubation time for new word usage. It would also perhaps have helped if during the course of the intervention, activities would have included creating sentences using the new words.

### Recommendations

This experiment points to several areas well worth further study. One of the most obvious deals with theories of reading comprehension in

foreign languages. The explanation for the superior performance of the extended/rich instruction group on the Connecticut Advanced Reading Comprehension Assessment of Educational Progress in French could well be shared by several of the theories listed by Hague (1987) in her analysis (see Chapter 2 for a discussion of these theories). This study would seem to contradict the aptitude hypothesis which claimed that superior mental ability resulted in superior vocabulary which in turn resulted in better readers. Prior to vocabulary intervention all groups were shown to be equivalent on both grade point average and on the reading proficiency measure. In light of this fact, the superior performance of the extended/rich group in reading comprehension and reading proficiency must have been due to some other factor. It would seem that the reasons behind the success of the extended/rich group are reflected in at least 3 of Hague's 5 hypotheses: the knowledge hypothesis which states that reading comprehension is increased due to the increased number of schemata present which come from an increase in general knowledge, the instrumentalist hypothesis which states that the incidental increase in vocabulary due to free reading accounts for increased reading comprehension, and the access hypothesis which holds that the free reading periods increased the students' ability to access what they knew about foreign language vocabulary and to use this knowledge for comprehension.

The fifth hypothesis, the instructional design hypothesis, holds that there is an interaction of the variables in each of the three preceding hypotheses and considers not only what and how words are learned, but



also how word knowledge contributes to reading comprehension. Since all three of these hypotheses seem to have been operative during the periods of free reading in the present study, the fifth hypothesis, that of instructional design, would seem to offer the appropriate explanation of the relationship between vocabulary knowledge and reading ability. There must be some sort of interaction between variables in the knowledge, the instrumentalist, the access hypotheses and the purposes for which the vocabulary words were learned. This is a realm well worth further study.

Another interesting study would be to redo this study in foreign language and include a fourth group of instruction. To the three instruction groups of this study - traditional, rich and extended/rich - it would be interesting to add traditional/extended. Traditional/extended instruction would include the same definitions that traditional had in this study plus free reading of magazines would be added. It would be interesting to see if the same gains exhibited by the extended/rich instruction group would be seen in traditional/extended instruction.

Another area which would be most interesting and useful to research further are the possible explanations why no student used the instructed words freely until nine weeks after the words were studied. Is this evidence of a delay time before a newly acquired word becomes a part of the productive vocabulary. Does this delay exist in native language usage also? Additionally, are there methods of instruction which would decrease the delay?

In conclusion, Beheydt's (1987) words bear repeating : "The simplistic view that vocabulary learning is nothing more than memorization of a series of wordforms with fixed meanings ought finally to be discarded" (p.55). It seems that the dependence on this sort of word for word correspondence actually inhibits reading proficiency. The dependence on word for word English translations of foreign texts should also be discarded. Extended/rich instruction in the target language has benefits for students so instructed that make worthwhile the additional time and energy requirements for the teacher. The inclusion of print material that can be read freely by the students is a powerful motivational tool, as well as having been shown to be a most effective means of instruction.

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## APPENDICES

### Appendix A

#### Pilot-Test for Vocabulary Knowledge

For each of the following French words, choose the English equivalent that most closely matches the French in meaning.

1. actuel : (a)tactile (b)active (c)current (d)real
2. ailleurs : (a) next (b)elsewhere (c)winged (d)seductive
3. ainsi : (a)anything (b)nervous (c)ancient (d)thus
4. amer : (a)bitter (b)sweet (c)palatable (d)sour
5. apercevoir : (a)to pierce (b)to notice (c)to appreciate (d)to see
6. appartenir : (a)to cooperate (b)to participate (c)to belong to (d)to hold on to
7. blesser : (a)to sneeze (b)to bless (c)to wound (d)to help
8. brûler : (a)to burn (b)to bake (c)to care (d)to hinder
9. car : (a)self (b)never (c)for (d)through
10. causer : (a) to cause (b)to reason (c)to tease (d)to chat
11. charger : (a) to charge (b)to bring (c)to build (d)to harm
12. chemin : (a)building (b)horse (c)chimney (d)path
13. concours : (a)home (b)job (c)talk (d)contest
14. douleur : (a)sweetness (b)kindness (c)pain (d)meanness
15. échec : (a)bank (b)failure (c)success (d)challenge
16. échouer : (a)to fail (b)to sneeze (c)to cough (d)to chase
17. effrayer : (a)to fray (b)to frighten (c)to marvel (d)to fear
18. empêcher : (a)to give (b)to be polite (c)to hide (d)to hinder
19. entretenir : (a)to give up (b)to hold (c)to exhibit (d)to maintain

20. gaspillage : (a)waste (b)breath (c)keepsake (d)metal
21. gêner : (a)to generate (b)to engineer (c)to inconvenience (d)to germinate
22. lancer : (a)to pierce (b)to throw (c)to let (d)to crush
23. logger : (a)to cut timber (b)to lock (c)to live (d)to leave
25. lorsque : (a)lord (b)when (c)outside (d)habit
26. malgré : (a)very bad (b)ugly (c)in spite of (d)because of
27. marteau : (a)bird (b)coat (c)marker (d)hammer
28. se méfier : (a)to beware (b)to lie (c)to anger (d)to run away
29. menacer : (a)to threaten (b)to help (c)to crawl (d)to hide
30. nettoyer : (a)to clean (b)to catch (c)to cave in (d)to build
31. occuper : (a)to sit (b)to spy (c)to occupy (d)to concern
32. partager : (a)to participate (b)to part (c)to share (d)to eat
33. piège : (a)play (b)pie (c)dessert (d)trap
34. pincer : (a)to speak poorly (b)to figure (c)to creep (d)to pinch
35. piste : (a)path (b)pistol (c)ray (d)mouse
36. presser : (a)to press (b)to rush (c)to push (d)to pull
37. remarquer : (a)to tow (b)to notice (c)to watch (d)to wonder
38. ronfler : (a)to snore (b)to purr (c)to stagger (d)to ruffle
39. sauver : (a)to sliver (b)to snare (c)to save (d)to saunter
40. servir : (a)to take (b)to surface (c)to serve (d)to thwart
41. soigner : (a)to carry (b)to care (c)to answer (d)to swaddle
42. souffrir : (a)to suffocate (b)to suffice (c)to survive (d)to suffer
43. sourd : (a)heavy (b)deaf (c)deadly (d)thick

44. surveiller : (a)to survive (b)to signify (c)to surprise (d)to watch
45. tamiser : (a)to crochet (b)to sift (c)to label (d)to itemize
46. taquiner : (a)to move from side to side (b)to tease (c) to tag (d)to tack
47. témoigner : (a)to witness (b)to make suffer (c)to explore by touch  
(d)to tax
48. tirer : (a)to tire (b)to wear (c)to attribute (d)to pull
49. vendange : (a)grape harvest (b)spring break (c)town dance  
(d)a waist coat
50. voyou : (a)peeping tom (b)blind child (c)old man (d)hoodlum

## Appendix B

### Cycle 1

#### Test for Vocabulary Recognition

For each of the following French words, choose the English equivalent that most closely matches the French in meaning.

1. ainsi : (a)anything (b)nervous (c)ancient (d)thus
2. appartenir : (a)to cooperate (b)to participate (c)to belong to  
(d)to hold on to
3. blesser : (a)to sneeze (b)to bless (c)to wound (d)to help
4. chemin : (a)building (b)horse (c)chimney (d)path
5. échec : (a)bank (b)failure (c)success (d)challenge
6. échouer : (a)to fail (b)to sneeze (c)to cough (d)to chase
7. gêner : (a)to generate (b)to engineer (c)to inconvenience (d)to  
germinate
8. malgré : (a)very bad (b)ugly (c)in spite of (d)because of
9. partager : (a)to participate (b)to part (c)to share (d)to eat
10. sourd : (a)heavy (b)deaf (c)deadly (d)thick
11. taquiner : (a)to move from side to side (b)to tease (c) to tag (d)to  
tack
12. tirer : (a)to tire (b)to wear (c)to attribute (d)to pull

## Cycle 2

## Test for Vocabulary Recognition

For each of the following French words, choose the English equivalent that most closely matches the French in meaning.

1. car : (a)self (b)never (c)for (d)through
2. douleur : (a)sweetness (b)kindness (c)pain (d)meanness
3. logger : (a)to cut timber (b)to lock (c)to live (d)to leave
4. témoigner : (a)to witness (b)to make suffer (c)to explore by touch  
(d)to tax
5. empêcher : (a)to give (b)to be polite (c)to hide (d)to prevent
6. voyou : (a)peeping tom (b)blind child (c)old man (d)hoodlum
7. apercevoir : (a)to pierce (b)to notice (c)to appreciate (d)to seem
8. se méfier : (a)to beware (b)to lie (c)to anger (d)to run away
9. tamiser : (a)to crochet (b)to sift (c)to label (d)to itemize
10. effrayer : (a)to fray (b)to frighten (c)to marvel (d)to fear
11. causer : (a) to crease (b)to reason (c)to tease (d)to chat
12. piste : (a)path (b)pistol (c)ray (d)mouse

## Appendix C

### Traditional Instruction Group: Words and Definitions

#### Cycle 1

ainsi : thus

appartenir : to belong

blessier : to wound

un chemin : a path

un échec : a failure

échouer : to fail

gêner : to hinder

malgré : in spite of

partager : to share

sourd : deaf

taquiner : to tease

tirer : to pull



**CYCLE 2**

**apercevoir : to see; to catch a glimpse of**

**car : for**

**causer : to cause or to chat**

**la douleur : pain**

**effrayer : to frighten**

**empêcher : to hinder**

**loger : to inhabit**

**se méfier : to beware**

**une piste : track**

**tamiser : to sift**

**témoigner : to testify**

**voyou : a hoodlum**

## Appendix D

### Rich and Extended/rich instruction Groups: Partial definitions/Script

#### Cycle 1

ainsi : C'est une expression qui implique une simple conclusion.

appartenir : être la propriété de

blessar : donner un coup qui fait mal; causer une douleur

un chemin : une piste qui mène d'un lieu à un autre.

un échec : un non-réussite; un insuccès.

échouer : ne pas réussir; rater.

gêner : empêcher la libre action.

malgré : contre la volonté; faire quelque chose en dépit de soi.

partager : diviser avec de bon humeur; donner une partie de quelque chose à quelqu'un.

sourd : privé plus ou moins complètement du sens de ouïe; fig. insensible eg.

sourd à la pauvreté

taquiner : s'amuser de quelqu'un

tirer : amener vers soi ou après soi

## Cycle 2

apercevoir : commencer à voir; fig. avoir conscience de savoir.

car : conjuction qui donne l'explication, la cause

causer : occasioner, être la cause de quelque chose; parler familièrement.

la douleur : souffrance physique; souffrance morale.

effrayer : faire peur; soulever dans l'âme une grande agitation par l'idée d'une image inquiétante.

empêcher : mettre obstacle.

loger : demeurer; habiter.

se méfier : manquer de confiance.

une piste : trace laissée par une animal; chemin réservé aux cyclistes, aux cavaliers.

tamiser : passer au tamis pour épurer des matières en poudre.

témoigner : révéler; rapporter ce qu'on voit.

voyou : enfant mal élevé (fem. voyoute); individu de moeurs crapuleuses.

## Appendix E

## Sentence Completion Worksheets

Rich and Extended/rich instruction Groups

Cycle 1

CHOISISSEZ DE VOTRE LISTE LE MOT CONVENABLE POUR CHAQUE TROU.

ECRIVEZ LA FORME CONVENABLE.

1. Il faut continuer à essayer, même si l'on subit des \_\_\_\_\_.
2. Il fait beau \_\_\_\_\_ on va faire un pique nique.
3. Ce livre est à moi. Il m' \_\_\_\_\_
4. Sans une ceinture de sécurité, les enfants peuvent être plus facilement \_\_\_\_\_ dans les voitures.
5. Mon frère adore me \_\_\_\_\_.
6. Paul étudie beaucoup. Alors il n' \_\_\_\_\_ jamais ses examens.
7. Paul a fait ses devoirs \_\_\_\_\_ la grippe.
8. Sylvie, regarde. J'ai des bonbons. Je vais les \_\_\_\_\_ avec toi.
9. L'enfant \_\_\_\_\_ un jouet derrière lui.
10. Il y a des profs qui sont de temps en temps \_\_\_\_\_ aux problèmes des élèves.
11. Ce prof nous \_\_\_\_\_ - Il nous a dit qu'on ne peut pas parler.
12. Savez-vous le \_\_\_\_\_ pour aller à Cortana?

## Cycle 2

CHOISISSEZ DE VOTRE LISTE LA FORME CONVENABLE POUR  
CHAQUE TROU.

1. Je me \_\_\_\_\_ des politiciens.
2. Baton Rouge n'a pas assez de \_\_\_\_\_ pour les cyclistes.
3. Je vais faire du pain. D'abord, je \_\_\_\_\_ la farine.
4. Paul \_\_\_\_\_ une montagne dans le lointain.
5. La consommation d'alcool avant de conduire \_\_\_\_\_ beaucoup d'accidents.
6. Ma grandmère souffre d'arthrite - cela lui donne de la \_\_\_\_\_.
7. Il ne faut pas parler pendant la leçon \_\_\_\_\_ cela fait perdre le temps.
8. Il ne faut pas \_\_\_\_\_. Mme. Ruzicka sera furieuse.
9. Il y a des chiens qui \_\_\_\_\_ des enfants. Ils pensent que ces chiens vont les attaquer.
10. La pluie \_\_\_\_\_ le départ de l'avion.
11. Il \_\_\_\_\_ chez ses grandparents.
12. On a suis la \_\_\_\_\_ d'un ours.
13. Si on voit une crime, on doit \_\_\_\_\_ contre le criminel.

## Appendix F

## Magazines Used by Extended/rich Instruction Group

Elektor Electronic-nov. 89

Sciences et Avenir-nov. 89

Oceans- avr. 85

Grands Reportages- nov. 89

L'Equestre - nov. 89

A Tout Chat- nov. 89

W.A.R.B.I.T.- nov. 89

WOUF avr. 88

30 millions d'amis- juil. 89

30 millions d'amis- nov. 89

Le Monde Equestre - nov. 89

Glamour - juil. 89

Glamour - oct. 89

Marie-France - nov. 89

Marie-France - mai 89

Salut - juil. 89

Salut - nov. 89

Tout Terrain - nov. 89

Auto hebdo - nov. 89

Le Moniteur de l'Automobile - juil. 89

Le moniteur de l'Automobile - aout 89

L'Officiel Homme - nov. 89

Spirou Magazine - avr. 89

Spirou Magazine - aout 89

Nouveau Cinéma - nov. 89

Sport - juil. 89

Sporto 80 - avr. 89

Le Cycle - nov. 89

Foot - nov. 89

Karaté - automne 89

Voici - aout 89

CinéTélé Revue - 5 oct. 89

CinéTélé Revue - 12 oct. 89

Aha - sept. 89

Paris Match - 22 juin 89

OK! - 2 avr. 89

OK! - 10 avr. 89

Onze - avr. 89

L'Action Automobile - nov. 89

Pro Motor - juil. 89

Les nouveaux aventuriers - juin 89

Arts et décoration - sept. 89

Guitarist - juin 89

L'ordinateur individuel - juil.- aout 89

Jeune et jolie - juil. 89

Paris en poche - nov. 89

## Appendix G

## CYCLE 1 Song

REPRENDRE C'EST VOLER Jean-Jacques Goldman

Je garderai les disques, et toi l'électrophone,  
Les préfaces des livres, je te laisse les fins,  
Je prends les annuaires, et toi le téléphone,  
On a tout partagé, on partage à la fin

Je prends le poisson rouge, tu gardes le bacal,  
A toi la grande table, à moi les quatre chaises,  
Tout doit être bien clair et surtout bien égal,  
On partage les choses quand on partage plus les rêves.

Tu garderas les X et moi mes XY,  
Tant pis, on saura pas c'que ça aurait donné,  
C'est sûrement mieux comme ça, c'est plus sage, plus correct,  
On saurais jamais c'qu'en pensait l'intéressé(e?).

Mais l'amour, tu peux tout le garder,  
Un soir, je te l'avais donné,  
Et reprendre, c'est voler,  
et reprendre, c'est voler.

(Student Worksheet-Rich and Extended/rich Groups)

Écoutez bien cette chanson de Jean-Jacques Goldman.

1. Décrivez la situation, les causes de cette chanson.
2. Décrivez le rapport des personnes dans ce poème.
3. Comment est-ce que Goldman décrit la division des choses? Quelle technique est-ce qu'il emploie?
4. Écrivez un poème en employant le même technique. Vous pouvez choisir une des situations suivantes:
  - a. Vous avez terminé vos études de lycée. Vous vous préparez pour aller à l'université. Vous écrivez à un(e) ami(e) d'une classe plus jeune.
  - b. Vous quittez Baton Rouge pour aller habiter à Dallas. Vous écrivez à un(e) ami(e).



Appendix H  
Cycle 2 Song

Appartenir Jean-Jacques Goldman

Mon doudou, mon chéri,  
Mon amour,  
Mon amant, mon mari,  
Mon toujours.  
Les mots si doux  
Mais qui m'effraient parfois,  
Je ne t'appartiens pas.  
Des mots si chauds,  
Mais à la fois si froids,  
Je n'appartiens qu'à moi.

Écoutez bien la chanson. Après avoir rempli les trous, répondez aux questions.

1. Décrivez la situation dans ce poème. A qui parle le poète?  
Pourquoi?
2. Avez-vous éprouvé ces mêmes sentiments? En quelles situations?
3. Écrivez un poème similaire, en employant les contrastes. Vous pouvez écrire à vos parents, à vos professeur(s), ou à votre ami.

## Appendix I

## Test for Vocabulary Knowledge

For each of the following French words, choose the English equivalent that most closely matches the French in meaning.

1. ainsi : (a)anything (b)nervous (c)ancient (d)thus
2. appartenir : (a)to cooperate (b)to participate (c)to belong to  
(d)to hold on to
3. apercevoir : (a)to pierce (b)to notice (c)to appreciate (d)to seem
4. blesser : (a)to sneeze (b)to bless (c)to wound (d)to help
5. car : (a)self (b)never (c)for (d)through
6. causer : (a) to crease (b)to reason (c)to tease (d)to chat
7. chemin : (a)building (b)horse (c)chimney (d)path
8. douleur : (a)sweetness (b)kindness (c)pain (d)meanness
9. échec : (a)bank (b)failure (c)success (d)challenge
10. échouer : (a)to fail (b)to sneeze (c)to cough (d)to chase
11. effrayer : (a)to fray (b)to frighten (c)to marvel (d)to fear
12. empêcher : (a)to give (b)to be polite (c)to hide (d)to prevent
13. gêner : (a)to generate (b)to engineer (c)to inconvenience (d)to  
germinate
14. logger : (a)to cut timber (b)to lock (c)to live (d)to leave
15. malgré : (a)very bad (b)ugly (c)in spite of (d)because of
16. se méfier : (a)to beware (b)to lie (c)to anger (d)to run away
17. partager : (a)to participate (b)to part (c)to share (d)to eat

18. piste : (a)path (b)pistol (c)ray (d)mouse
19. sourd : (a)heavy (b)deaf (c)deadly (d)thick
20. taquiner : (a)to move from side to side (b)to tease (c) to tag (d)to tack
21. tamiser : (a)to crochet (b)to sift (c)to label (d)to itemize
22. témoigner : (a)to witness (b)to make suffer (c)to explore by touch  
(d)to tax
- 23.tirer : (a)to tire (b)to wear (c)to attribute (d)to pull
- 24.voyou : (a)peeping tom (b)blind child (c)old man (d)hoodlum

Appendix J  
Cloze Cycle 1

ainsi	appartenir	blessar
chemin	échec	échouer
gêner	malgré	partager
sourd	taquiner	tire

Ma mère est très en colère. Elle veut faire le ménage et elle trouve les affaires de mes frères et moi partout dans la maison, sauf dans nos chambres. Elle est dans le salon maintenant et elle \_\_\_\_\_ des choses de derrière le divan. Elle crie, "A qui \_\_\_\_\_ cette t-shirt? Et ces reeboks blanches? Viens vite les chercher ou je vais les jeter." Tout suite on est en \_\_\_\_\_ au salon. Elle ne nous \_\_\_\_\_ pas. On sait qu'elle est absolument sérieuse. "Alors les enfants. Vous êtes \_\_\_\_\_ ? J'ai dit tout de suite."

On était trois amis dans la voiture- Etienne, Bubba et moi. Etienne avait 17 ans, et Bubba et moi, on avait 16 ans. On était sur le boulevard Floride. C'était Etienne qui conduisait. On avait besoin de tourner à gauche. Mais la circulation était horrible. On a attendu pendant presque dix minutes! Etienne est devenu impatient et il a décidé d'essayer. Mauvaise décision. On a cogné un agent de police. Quel \_\_\_\_\_.

Mais heureusement, il n'y avait pas de \_\_\_\_\_ . Mais cet accident a causé des problèmes quand même. Il a \_\_\_\_\_ Bubba le plus - le père de Bubba a dit qu'il \_\_\_\_\_ la culpabilité avec son frère. Et moi, j'ai été si frappé par cet accident, que j'ai \_\_\_\_\_ deux fois l'examen du permis de conduire.

J'étais complètement confondu. Mon prof de chimie m'a dit de ne pas manquer l'examen demain. Mais me voilà, ici à la maison avec la grippe, de la fièvre. Il m'était presque impossible d'étudier. \_\_\_\_\_ je ne vais pas passer l'examen demain? Pas de chance. Je vais y aller, je vais passer cet examen, et je vais y réussir - \_\_\_\_\_ cette maladie.

## Cycle 2 Cloze

Fill in the blanks with the appropriate form of the word, chosen from the word bank below :

apercevoir	car	cause	douleur	effrayer
empêcher	loger	se méfier	piste	tamiser
témoigner	voyou			

Il est minuit - juste. Je suis contente. Charles et moi, nous sommes sorti ensemble, nous avons passé une soirée magnifique, et maintenant nous arrivons juste à l'heure chez ma grand-mère. Je \_\_\_\_\_ ici parce que mes parents ont déménagé à Atlanta. J'ai envie de parler à ma grand-mère pour lui \_\_\_\_\_ que je suis absolument amoureuse de Charles.

Mais regarde! Qu'est-ce qui se passe? Une voiture de police est devant la maison de ma grand-mère. Cette voiture m'\_\_\_\_\_. Il y a une barrière qui nous \_\_\_\_\_ d'entrer. Un policier vient et nous demande la \_\_\_\_\_ de notre visite. Je lui explique que j'habite ici \_\_\_\_\_ mes parents sont à Atlanta. Il me dit de ne pas avoir peur, mais qu'il pense que des jeunes \_\_\_\_\_ sont entrés dans la maison.

Nous entrons dans la cuisine et voilà ma grand-mère en train de \_\_\_\_\_ la farine comme d'habitude quand elle est agitée. On peut très bien voir la \_\_\_\_\_ des jeunes - des papiers de cigarettes. << On va les attraper!>>, dit Charles, le héros de mon cœur.

Appendix K  
Test for Text Comprehension

Ébloui par la lumière du soleil, j'étais à côté de la rivière à tamiser le sable à la recherche de quelques pépites d'or. Le propriétaire de cette terre m'avait loué un petit tronçon de la rivière pour quelques fourrures en me promettant que cette rivière me rendrait riche. Pendant des heures et des heures je suis resté dans l'eau, malgré le soleil qui gênait mes yeux et brûlait mon dos. Quand la nuit est venue, j'ai décidé de m'arrêter. Encore un échec - pas d'or. Juste à ce moment le propriétaire est arrivé me voir. Il m'a taquiné, en disant que cette rivière a fait sa fortune et que je devais mieux chercher.

J'étais déprimé et après son départ, j'ai décidé de descendre au village, au bar pour me changer les idées. Après quelques bières, j'ai commencé à parler de ma malchance dans la rivière lorsqu'un autre trappeur est venu pour me témoigner qu'il n'y avait pas d'or dans cette rivière et que le propriétaire était un voyou.

Furieux, je suis remonté chez le propriétaire pour lui reprendre mon argent. Mais un autre trappeur malcontent avait dû passer avant moi car le pauvre propriétaire était allongé, un long couteau planté dans son dos. C'est ainsi que je suis redescendu à la rivière, en souriant, avec mon argent, content de ne pas avoir tout perdu. Finalement, je n'avais pas échoué.

Answer the following questions in English after reading the text at least twice.

1. What is the narrator doing at the opening of the story?
2. Describe the weather.
3. How did the narrator learn of the proprietor's true character?
4. Describe the narrator at the close of the story, giving support for your opinions with evidence from the story .

## Appendix L

## Free Use of Words in Writing Measure

Yves Duteil décrit la situation-

"D'après une histoire vécue, entendue à la radio: une jeune femme tombe amoureuse d'un homme, ils vivent tous les deux une passion exceptionnelle, jusqu'au départ du monsieur pour un pays lointain.

Il promet d'écrire dès qu'il sera installé pour qu'elle le rejoigne. Elle attend cette lettre chaque jour.

....Elle l'a attendue pendant quarante ans. Un jour, elle refait son appartement, et sous le linoléum de l'entrée, elle trouve la lettre tout enférée, jaunie, que le facteur avait glissée sous la porte, quarante ans auparavant...."

## LES MOTS QU'ON N'A PAS DITS

Dans le fond des tiroirs y'a des _____ qui dorment	existence
Et des _____ que jamais on n'a dits à personne	chansons
Qui auraient pu changer le cours d'une _____	silence
Mais qui ont préféré rester dans le _____	mots
Des phrases _____ dans des yeux qui s'appellent	
Et qui pas un baiser ne referme ou ne _____	scelle
_____ tous ces mots-là ne sombrent dans l'oubli	jamais
Ils se changent en regrets, en souvenirs transis	emprisonés
Mais les _____ du feu des mots qu'on n'a pas dits	refroidies
Jamais ne sont vraiment éteintes ou _____	cendres
Elles se _____ encore au coeur de nos mémoires	consumment
En réchauffant nos nuits d'une lueur d'espoir	
Comme du temps qui dort	
Au fond du sablier	
Mais que l'on garde encore	
Pour ne pas oublier	
La nuit dans les miroirs y'a des mots qui _____	s'allument
Et qui refont parfois la gloire ou la fortune	
Avec tous les regards qu'on n'a pas su _____	refleurir
Et les amours fanées qui semblent _____	saisir
Alors dans les miroirs y'a des mots qui _____	personne
Comme un destin tout neuf qui ne sert à _____	bonheurs
Et l'on caresse encore les espoirs de _____	resonnent
Qui ressemblent aux prénoms que l'on connaît pas coeur	
Aux lettres enrubannées que l'on n'a pas _____	venue
Mais qu'on relit cent fois pourtant la nuit _____	recues
A tous ces mots d'amour restées dans l'_____	crier

Mais qu'on n'a plus personne à qui pouvoir \_\_\_\_\_ encrier

Dans le fond des tiroirs y'a des larmes qui \_\_\_\_\_ suivis  
 Un portrait du passé qui s'encorne ou s'\_\_\_\_\_ ébrèche  
 Et la vie doucement renferme de ses \_\_\_\_\_ plis  
 Ces chemins qui s'ouvraient mais qu'on n'a pas \_\_\_\_\_ sèchent

Écoutez bien la chanson de Yves Duteil et réfléchissez bien aux mots.

1. Vous êtes la femme qui vient de trouver la lettre que votre amour vous a envoyée il y a 40 ans. Décrivez votre réaction, ce que vous pensez de cette découverte. Décrivez aussi ce que vous allez faire maintenant.
2. Vous êtes le monsieur. Vous avez vécu sans cette femme depuis 40 ans. Vous ne saviez pas la vraie histoire jusqu'à ce moment. Qu'est-ce que vous allez faire maintenant? Décrivez votre vie sans cette femme.



## CURRICULUM VITAE

### GENERAL INFORMATION

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Ph.office(504) 775-3715

Date of birth: March 17, 1953

Marital status: married (one daughter)

Citizenship: American

Present employment: teacher of French levels two and three:  
Scotlandville Magnet High School (since  
August, 1985)

Most recent degree: Ph.D. candidate (Education, major; French, minor)

### ACADEMIC PREPARATION

1971-76 B.S. LSU

1978-82 M.Ed. (English), Louisiana State University

1986-91 Ph.D. (Curriculum and instruction, Louisiana State  
University. Title of dissertation: Acquiring Vocabulary in a  
Foreign Language: Some Effects of the Nature of Instruction  
on the Knowledge and Use of Words

### AWARDS

1977 Boursière of the French government, in Montpellier, France. Studied  
methodology and current French society

1979-80 Boursière of French government at L'Institut Catholique. Studied  
language and literature.

1986 Boursière at Poitiers, France. Studied current methodology.

1988 Boursière of the Belgian government at Liège, Belgium.

1991 Rockefeller fellowship to create materials in Nantes, France and to  
study French language and culture at the Centre de Linguistique  
Appliqué in Besançon, France.

**PROFESSIONAL EXPERIENCE**

- 1976-79 Teacher of English and French at Lee High School in Baton Rouge, LA.
- 1979-80 Assistant teacher of English at L'Externat Ste Jeanne D'Arc in Sceaux, France.
- 1980-85 Teacher of French in grades 2-5 at Bernard Terrace Elementary in Baton Rouge, LA.
- 1985-86 Teacher of French 1, 2, and 3 at Scotlandville Magnet High School, Baton Rouge, LA.
- 1986-88 LSU doctoral student and graduate assistant. Duties included coordinating programs for foreign language student teachers in the public high schools and teaching the undergraduate foreign language methods course.
- 1988-91 Teacher of French 2 and 3 at Scotlandville Magnet High School.

**Special projects**

- 1989-90 Coordinator of the French curriculum writing team for East Baton Rouge Parish.
- 1990-91 Member of the Louisiana State Foreign Language Curriculum Team. Organized workshop to present the guide to pilot teachers across the state.

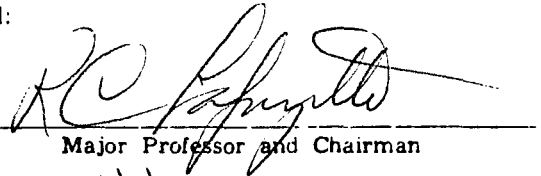
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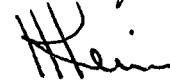
Candidate: LOUISE STOWELL-RUZICKA

Major Field: EDUCATION

Title of Dissertation: ACQUIRING VOCABULARY IN A FOREIGN LANGUAGE: SOME EFFECTS OF THE NATURE OF INSTRUCTION ON THE KNOWLEDGE AND USE OF WORDS

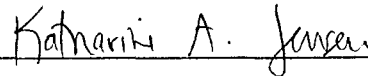
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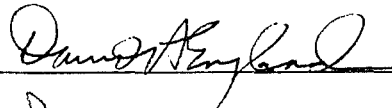
  
Major Professor and Chairman



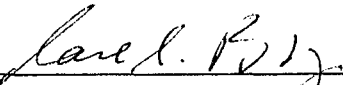
Dean of the Graduate School

EXAMINING COMMITTEE:

  
Katharine A. Jensen

  
David England

  
Bonnie Knepp

  
Laure L. R. 12

  
Frank F. 12

Date of Examination:

April 18, 1991